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OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION

OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

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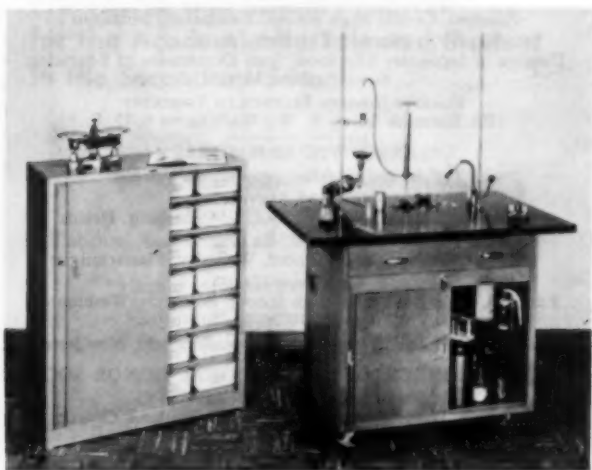




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Guidance Means Help

JAMES E. NANCARROW

IF WE are to take seriously the many articles on college admission which have been appearing in the various magazines and newspapers, both parents and students need help. The panic to get into college has been blown up and a real problem does exist, particularly here in the East. Too often, parents think only of the so-called "prestige college" or name college as the answer to their great ambition for their son or daughter, rather than a good college which will give good preparation in the field which is desired. Parental plans often are not based on sound information or wise understanding. In such a situation, a guidance counselor has a ticklish problem in trying to channel this interest in the proper direction.

At Upper Darby High School we believe the problem has not been eliminated, but that it has been alleviated by proper guidance. A student, who has a sound record of achievement here, usually can choose the college he desires to attend. Experienced and skilled guidance counselors, who know that each college has its own distinctive characteristics, try to guide the student to a full knowledge of what will be expected of him. They try to help him to assess properly his strengths and weaknesses, his aptitudes, talents, and interests so that he will have a better understanding of himself and thus be in a better position to select the college or block of colleges which will best fulfill his needs.

In some schools, it is reported that the guidance director has become too much of a specialist and is not down close enough to the students. Some schools have a special stable of professional counselors who spend most of their time in scheduled interviews with students or in testing them. In some cases, the guidance person schedules one or two interviews of fifteen or twenty minutes each with the student each year, and thinks that his guidance obligation to that student has been fulfilled. In other cases, the counselor spends most of his time in testing and then recording the results.

It is true that we do some scheduled interviewing and some testing, but we believe that either one alone is not enough. Our approach to the problem can best be described as the *grass roots* attack. We believe that the main job of a counselor is *not to tell them*, but rather to *help* boys and girls to grow mentally, physically, emotionally, and socially, and thus we train them better so that they realize their own strengths and weaknesses and thus make better decisions.

James E. Nancarrow is Principal of the Upper Darby High School, Upper Darby, Pennsylvania, and was recently President of the NASSP.

The good counselor helps each student to make plans to solve his problem, but he does not make decisions for him. Even though the problem may seem to be a small one, it is important to the student, and the skilled guidance person will take time to give assistance. Since the adviser is the center of communication, his attitude toward the student and his problem is necessarily both *critical* and *crucial*. Only as he becomes a colleague and renders service will he do his best work.

At present, our guidance staff consists of a registrar, who heads the program, two deans, two class advisers for each class, a coordinator and placement man, a school nurse, and a social worker. Psychological services and psychiatric services are also available. The key to their success is *teamwork*. By working together as a unit, they present a *grass roots* frontal attack on the many and varied problems of students, regardless of how large or how small those problems may appear to be at the time.

Let us take a look at some of the procedures and aids which they use.

1. *The Personal History Folder*

In this folder, a complete history of each student is kept from grades one through twelve. First we have the family history which includes the names of the father and mother and other children, their place of birth, education, language spoken, occupations, and special interests. Then we have the name, place of birth, date of birth, and school progress of the student.

We also have a personal and social record of the student, which includes personality traits such as personal appearance, emotional stability, responsibility, reliability, and judgment. It also includes a social traits record in cooperation, sociability, and leadership; a work habits record in promptness, efficiency in use of time and materials, accuracy and neatness, and application and persistence; and a record of intellectual interests and curiosity. Each teacher, both classroom and home-room, rates each student each year on each one of these traits. The work is done independently on individual sheets and the home-room teacher records the results in the personal history folder.

This folder contains a complete record of all tests, both mental and achievement; of any handicaps; of medical information; of extracurricular data; of special interests and hobbies; of notable achievements; of unusual experiences; of special help received; of vocational interests and experiences; and of educational plans. A space is also provided for a post-high-school record of further academic training, employment, and participation in civic activities.

For guidance and counseling, the personal history folder is of inestimable value. It gives a rather complete picture of the student's ability, aptitudes, and skills. Whether or not he is working up to his capacity and ability can soon be determined. If he desires to go on to college, a rather complete record is readily available.

2. *The Guidance Folder*

This folder is passed along from the elementary school to the guidance director in the junior high school. Later it is given to the guidance people in the senior high school. It includes personal data on the student's actions as he progresses through school. His disciplinary record and many items of a personal nature will be found here.

3. *Tests*

a. In the ninth grade, many students take the preliminary National Merit examinations. These are tests of development in the fields of English Usage, Mathematics, Social Studies, Science Comprehension, and Vocabulary. After the marks for each student in each field have been graphed, a group conference is arranged for the parents, at which time a representative from the company explains the proper interpretation of the results. Many parents seek additional help by arranging for a personal interview with a member of the guidance staff, at which time the college admission problem is discussed.

b. In the junior year, a battery of tests is available through Drexel Institute of Technology. The battery includes the following tests: the *California Short Form Test of Mental Maturity*, the *Iowa Mathematical Aptitude Test*, the *Minnesota Paper Form Board Test*, the *Bennett Clerical Aptitude Test*, the *Kuder Preference Record Inventory*, and the *Bernreuter Personality Inventory*. After the tests are corrected by Drexel Institute, our guidance staff arranges for a personal interview with both parents and the student. This interview usually lasts about one hour for each student.

c. In the junior year, all students take the *Otis Quick Scoring Mental Ability Test*, and many of them take the *Preliminary Scholastic Aptitude Test*. They are counseled individually on the results of these tests.

4. *Conferences with Parents*

a. Each marking period, the class advisers check the records for failures and then counsel both the students and their parents.

b. When students sign up for their courses for the next year, the roster questionnaires are checked by the class advisers. In all cases which appear to be irregular, an interview with parent and student is arranged. At this point, particular attention is paid to the student who has not worked up to his ability or capacity.

c. Individual conferences are arranged with parents when either the parent or a member of the guidance staff deems it to be advisable. The education of parents to the present college situation is of vital importance in helping to get the parent and student to select the college best suited to his abilities and needs.

5. *Group Guidance Conferences*

a. With Haverford Township High School as a co-sponsor, a *School and College Night* is arranged each year. Twenty-five of the schools in this area, both public and private, are invited to participate in the con-

ference. One hundred or more institutions of higher learning send their representatives to this meeting. It is not unusual for three thousand or more parents and students to attend this affair.

b. Through the cooperation of the Upper Darby Rotary Club, a *Vocational Guidance Conference* is arranged each year. If ten or more students are interested in a field, the Rotary Club will arrange for an experienced person in the field to help them. Last year sixty-two different groups studied sixty-two different occupations.

6. *The school tries to help those students who need help.*

Our two deans handle the disciplinary cases. They also check on those students who are not working up to capacity. Instead of considering their function as primarily one of dealing out punishment, they try to get a better understanding of the problem in order to get at the seat of the trouble. In many cases, the trained social service worker is sent into the home in order to get at the scene behind the scene. In some cases, the psychologist is called in and the student is given a battery of tests. The test scores and a written report with advice concerning the student is given to the appropriate Dean. In some cases, psychiatric help is advised. The use of such a scientific attack has proven to be very fruitful.

7. *The School Tries To Develop Leadership.*

a. Upper Darby High School is somewhat unique in that it tries to build on the *positive*, as well as to remedy the *negative*. Our dean of boys, Mr. Ralph Andersen, has developed an original plan for the development of leadership. His leadership group, of over one hundred students each year, not only helps to develop leadership qualities in the students, but also to build morale in the school. (Note:—Space limitations prevent full description.)

b. Our leadership development program helps to develop additional leaders in the school. By limiting the number of activities in which a student may participate, more students are given an opportunity to develop their talents. There are twice as many students actively carrying on and being trained as there were before the plan was adopted.

8. *An Accurate Record of Our Successes and Failures Is Kept.*

a. A complete record of the graduate's marks during his freshman year in college is kept. By studying our failures, we can discover in which departments changes need to be made.

b. A complete record of all College Entrance Board Examination marks is kept and studied. Our achievement here has been better than what reasonably might be expected.

9. *The Nature of Our Curriculum Lends Strength to Our Program.*

a. For twenty years, we have had accelerated courses for those who have the ability to do the work. The guidance staff has carefully screened the students for this work. The success of this program is readily seen in the results on the College Placement Tests.

b. We also have special classes for those at the other end of the scale.

10. *Students Learn To Face the Facts.*

The report of our registrar, Mr. Charles Holmes, to the college, is an honest one, and the colleges have learned that they can depend on it. By summarizing the material which is found on the personal history folder, he is able to give the college very thorough and accurate information. If the student appears to be unable to carry on the work of a particular college, he is so informed. In such a case, the student will be guided to a college better suited to his ability. Such guidance means better success for the student, and less failure to be recorded later at his alma mater.

IN CONCLUSION

These are a few of the many facets which are used in our guidance program. We believe that our program, with its many prongs, is a good one. We are not complacent and standing still, but thus far we believe we have made progress. We look forward to the long term and know that we need to encourage further mature thinking and self-responsibility; we need to raise the standards of character training; and, above all, we need to play the role of a friend. We shall aim to make the development of maturity through student counseling an art.

The Case Against High School Secret Societies

GERALD M. VAN POOL

CONSIDERABLE has been written about secret societies in high school—better known as fraternities and sororities. Arguments have been presented on both sides; some attempt to show that these organizations are everything a professional schoolman could want them to be, while others declare that there is no worse organization in a school than a secret society. The arguments and discussions are seldom objective and, all too often, more heat than light is generated. Here is a case against secret societies in the high school which, it is hoped, may produce some light.

Gerald M. Van Pool is Assistant Secretary for Student Activities, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C.

WHAT IS A FRATERNITY?

A fraternity (or sorority) is an organization made up of high-school students, usually all from one school but occasionally taking in members from other schools or young people who are not in school at all. Members are chosen by the membership itself according to their own standards; therefore, the organization is self-perpetuating. Some groups may be part of a larger national organization, while others may be "locals" with no affiliated chapters anywhere else.

These societies hold fairly regular meetings, usually closed, hence "secret." Most meetings are held in the homes of the members, seldom in school. They develop and practice a certain amount of ritual and may wear or display certain significant insignia. They may or may not have a purpose other than social; generally all members are of a certain social or economic group, and one main purpose of the organization is to provide additional social opportunities. Some groups may state that their purpose is not purely social but is to render service to the community.

WHY DO STUDENTS JOIN?

1. Belonging to a secret society gives students a certain feeling of *prestige* as they have to be selected and voted into membership—a "privilege" not granted to just anybody. They feel that, because they were chosen, they are somewhat different—better, perhaps, than those who could not get in. There is something exclusive in being asked to join a group of this kind.

2. The *closed meetings* help to give members a pleasant feeling of secrecy—a rather normal feeling in most youth and even among many adults. If this were not so, how can we explain the many adults who belong to a lodge and take an active part in its work?

3. Most secret societies have some kind of *identifying badge* or pin which tends to set off the members from the rest of the school. This helps the member to identify himself with a group.

4. Secret societies generally hold numerous *social affairs*, and a member is fairly sure to have a full social life.

5. Their initiations provide members with much *fun* and a sense of *adventure* and excitement.

6. Members feel that they owe *allegiance* to other members and support them in their campaigns for school office and other honors.

7. Sometimes social-climbing parents urge their children to seek admission to secret societies, believing that the children's *social standing* is somehow improved by such membership.

8. In some instances, *tradition* plays an important role. The parents belonged to a certain organization and it is their desire to have their own children belong to the same group.

9. There may be a *dearth of social activity* in the school, and community and students turn to the secret society to provide means of recreation.

10. In a college town, the younger students have a tendency to *copy the acts and attitudes of the college students* and so they form societies of their own, just like in college.

ARE SECRET SOCIETIES OBJECTIONABLE?

"It is quite apparent that some of the foregoing activities are not objectionable in themselves and whenever the elimination of fraternities and sororities is suggested, it is sometimes difficult to point out that any of these characteristics are in themselves detrimental to either the individual or to the school. However, there is not one good characteristic or activity of these groups which could not be transferred to an approved, accepted school club or activity. There is a sharp difference between an approved school organization and the sorority or fraternity. It is the distinct difference which must constantly be kept in mind by school people, parents, students, and the community in general.

"The primary difference between the school group and the fraternity is the principle of exclusiveness and its undemocratic principle of selection. No public school has a right to sponsor or permit the existence of any organization whose membership is not open to all who can qualify. It is not to be implied that every organization should be open to any individual who wants to join whenever he has the urge and to resign when he pleases. A school group should establish its standards within reason, regardless of how high those standards might be, but, when a person has met those standards and can prove his qualifications, he should not need to fear the blackballing of any students or teachers. When the standards have been met, any boy or girl should feel that he can join any group in school if he so desires."¹

This, obviously, is not the case with fraternities and sororities. Perhaps the main attraction of these organizations is their air of snobbishness or exclusiveness. There are many other objections to high-school secret societies. Here are some.

1. Many children, especially girls, are seriously hurt by the agonizing period of wondering if they will be chosen and, especially, by the right group. The damage is especially serious when a girl is not chosen by *any* group and for no apparent or sensible reason. A few reasons given for not selecting some girls are: her feet are too big; her home is too small; the bathtub still has feet on it. Ridiculous! we may call this and ridiculous it is, but they are examples of some of the standards for selection.

2. Friendships of long standing are sometimes broken up because one girl is selected and another is not. Some sororities even look with disfavor upon too much social contact with a non-sorority member, a "barb."

¹ Excerpted from an article by Lawrence E. Vredevoe, in the March 1948 issue of THE BULLETIN of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. This article is entitled "Dealing with School Fraternities and Sororities" and appears on pages 12-19.

3. Societies generally travel pretty much together and so the school is defeated in its purpose to teach about other peoples. Secret societies are clannish and stay by themselves; they even have special tables in the cafeteria, and woe be unto him who sits there uninvited. They have a special place to meet on the campus or in the building and everyone knows who goes there and why.

4. In some cases, fraternity and sorority members will cheer a good play made by one of their own and remain pointedly silent if a good play is made by a "barb" or a member of a rival group. There have been instances when members of the same team will not cooperate by passing the ball to one another because some teammates were "barbs" or members of a rival group. Imagine the difficulty of stirring up wholesome school spirit under such conditions!

5. Secret societies tend to support their friends for school office and, where they are strong enough, they can actually control the election. The qualifications of the candidates do not necessarily count for much—the members vote for the fraternity's choice, thus defeating the very purpose of the school election.

6. The organized secret societies can sometimes control the success or failure of school events by their decision to support—or not to support—certain school functions. In some instances, where the societies are especially strong, the principal must humiliate himself by asking in advance whether or not he can count on the help and cooperation of the societies in scheduling certain school functions. If the answer is NO, then the event may have to be called off or curtailed.

7. The secret society is divisive—it divides the loyalty of the students between the society and school. At a time when a student ought to be primarily interested in school and what it has to offer, he is beset by demands to give his first loyalty to the society.

8. The social events of these organizations leave much to be desired.

There is apparently no good reason why members of these groups cannot have desirable social functions just as other groups do and it is quite possible that many secret society functions are circumspect and above reproach. However, for some reason or other, their parties often seem to be different from ordinary high-school parties. In the first place, they are not held in school but in a member's home, at a hotel, or some similar place. Too often, they are not properly supervised or chaperoned; in some cases the chaperones are not much older than the members both in age and maturity. On occasion, these parties turn into beer parties or something worse. Every once in a while, the police seem to find it necessary to raid a party and either send the young people home or call their parents and ask them to get their children.

One never hears of the police raiding a meeting of the student council, National Honor Society, Hi-Y, 4-H, Junior Red Cross, Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, and others of a similar nature. There is seldom one word of

criticism directed against any of these organizations, but there seems to be an ever-present cloud of suspicion and doubt hanging over the activities of secret societies. In the opinion of some there are numerous reasons for that cloud.

Secret societies attract to them a number of young people who seem to rebel against authority and want to do things in these societies which they know the school would never permit. Thus, they meet away from school, with little or no supervision, and there do what they can't do in school. There is far too much printed about these activities for it all to be mere coincidence. Some of these headlines give a general idea of what is meant:

Oakland, California: "Sororities, Fraternities Face New School Board Curbing"

Wheaton, Maryland: "Frat Party Broken up by Wheaton Police"

Washington, D. C.: "School Officials Plan Fraternity Probe in Student Party Raid"

Kansas City, Kansas: "Ruling by Board To Enforce Ban on Fraternities"

Cincinnati, Ohio: "Social Societies Asked To Cooperate with Board of Education Regulations"

Mobile, Alabama: "Fraternity Promises To Discipline Hazers"

Time: "A Ride in the Country" (Hazing) (Mobile, Alabama)

"High School Hell" (Situation in Portland, Oregon)

"The Trouble with Greeks" (Shades Valley High School, Birmingham, Alabama)

NEA Journal: "Secret Societies" (The case against high-school fraternities and sororities)

San Antonio, Texas: "Youths Admit Roles in San Antonio House Blast"

Washington, D. C.: "Do High School Sorority Pins Prick Teen Egos?"

Columbus, Ohio: "High School Social Clubs Banned by Board"

Washington, D. C.: "Fraternities Blasted by School Principals"

Birmingham, Alabama: "8 Boys Convicted in Frat Beatings"

Tulsa, Oklahoma: "Police Search River for Body of Boy" (Swam river in 21 degree weather in pledging hazing)

9. There are too many opportunities to engage in non-approved activities, to lie, to cheat, and to deceive. Many schools have stern regulations about membership in secret societies, and they are enforced. Some societies have told their members that, if called to the principal's office, they really are NOT members; but, immediately upon leaving the office, they are automatically reinstated! It is a little difficult to understand the twisted reasoning that could dream up a subterfuge like this, or that would make such a subterfuge necessary!

ARE THERE ANY ARGUMENTS IN FAVOR OF HIGH-SCHOOL SECRET SOCIETIES?

There must be many people who feel that a high-school secret society is a good thing because there are many students who belong and we must assume that some of them, at least, belong with the consent and approval of their parents. A few of the arguments advanced in favor of these organizations are:

1. "*We do good; we render service.*"—To some extent, and in some cases, this is true. However, it is much the same argument advanced by those who want to legalize gambling or set up a national lottery. ("The money brought in would help to lower our taxes, *etc.*") One hears of fraternities and sororities taking baskets of food to the needy on Thanksgiving and presents to the poor on Christmas. There are numerous examples of this kind of service, but is it necessary to have an elaborate setup of signs, signals, rituals, *etc.*, just to distribute a few baskets once a year? As a matter of fact, this is only one of a great number of real services rendered all through the year by *bona fide*, approved, recognized school groups. Even though some secret societies may occasionally render the same kind of service, this is NOT the main reason for their existence; it is casual and incidental.

2. "*We have the right to choose our own friends.*"—This is true and no one denies it. However, a secret society is much more serious and much more involved than just selecting friends. Membership involves the whole pattern of social activity, snobbish exclusion of others who may be equally qualified, clannishness, and withdrawal from other school activities.

3. "*It is natural for people to want to belong—to join an organization.*"—This is quite true, but there are organizations *and* organizations. The right of anyone to join the group of his choice is not denied; this applies to youngsters as well as to adults. But the right to bring undemocratic, exclusive, clannish organizations into the public schools is denied. In fact, many schools forbid any show of any kind that would give prominence or call attention to these organizations and their activities. They have been so generally disruptive that it is not only the right but also the duty of the school to deny them recognition and to keep them out of the school.

4. "*We have an organization like this, but we will not bring it into the school at any time or on any occasion.*"—This is a fine idea but quite literally unworkable. Much of the fun in belonging to a secret society is letting others know that one belongs. This is accomplished by the wearing of a pin, badge, emblem, distinctive dress, sweater, or anything else that denotes membership. These people sit in certain places, eat in a special spot, move with a certain restricted group, and show in numerous ways who and what they are. It is almost impossible for a young person to belong to a fraternity or sorority and keep it an absolute secret.

5. "*You say that sometimes a boy or girl gets hurt, especially a girl, because she was not asked to join a society. She will have to learn some time to accept bitter disappointment. Why not now? Can we help it if she is hurt?*"—She probably will have to learn the vicissitudes of life. We have no right to inflict those hurts on her now when she may not be emotionally mature enough to take it. Especially in a public school do we have the duty to protect our young people as much as we can and as long as we can. We can't be as heartless as some think we should

be and say "Forget her feelings. Let her grow up and take her medicine." This is hardly humanitarian.

6. "*We can organize any group we want to and can do as we please. Neither you nor the school can do anything about it.*"—Fortunately, that is not true. The courts have consistently held that the schools, boards of education, etc. have the right to make the necessary rules and regulations to assist in the orderly administration of the public schools. The right to ban secret societies exists in many states. In fact, the latest survey² available—made in 1954—lists 27 states that have passed laws to regulate or ban entirely high-school secret societies. In general, the courts have always been on the side of the schools and against high-school secret societies.

7. "*They provide social activities not provided by other organizations.*" In some instances, the social activities provided by fraternities and sororities are not the kind that a reputable church or school group would want to provide. In far too many instances, their social affairs are not above suspicion and, in some severe cases, they require the services of the police to quiet down and control. In other cases, it must be admitted that some of these social affairs do fill a need. In some cities or schools, there is an inadequate social program and students turn to secret societies to give them the opportunity for socializing. The school should provide a satisfactory and adequate social program.

8. "*They develop friendship among members and teach members how to get along with others.*"—This is both true and untrue. These organizations do help the members to get along with other members, but is it necessary to have all the trappings of a secret society to do this? The same thing can be done in a reputable and recognized school club. As for getting along with others, this is all too often *untrue*; in fact, just the opposite is usually true. The group sets itself apart from the mainstream of school life and, if anything, tends to create barriers between it and other students. It is to be seriously doubted that fraternities and sororities ever do much to help their members adjust to the life of the school and to make friends among the non-members.

9. "*They break down barriers among school classes.*"—This is both untrue and ridiculous. It would be about as true to say that the caste system of India or apartheid in South Africa breaks down class barriers as it would be to say that fraternities and sororities in high school develop habits of democratic living.

10. "*They develop leadership.*"—This is partially true, but what kind of leadership? Leadership to foster and promote a form of social segregation? Is this the kind of leadership we are seeking among our students? And even if desirable leadership might be developed, why not do it through legitimate, established, and approved school clubs?

² "Antifraternity Rules" prepared by the Research Division of the National Education Association and printed in *THE BULLETIN* of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, March 1954, pages 80-95.

11. "*They have abolished religious discrimination.*"—Perhaps so, but this is doubtful. Even if true, why is a special secret organization necessary to accomplish this desirable end?

12. "*They do not need adult supervision; if they do, it is provided.*"—This is highly debatable. One of the greatest criticisms against these secret organizations is that they do not have, or seldom have, the right kind of wise, understanding, mature leadership. The criticism is that, all too often, their social affairs have no mature individuals serving in a supervisory capacity or attending as chaperones. In some cases, the chaperones are young people, not much older than the students, in both years and mature judgment. No, it must be denied rather vigorously that fraternity and sorority affairs and functions always have the right kind of adult supervision.

13. "*They promote charity.*"—This has been mentioned briefly previously. It can be repeated that these organizations are not organized for charity; if there is any charity—and generally it is little—it is incidental. And even if charity *should* be a main objective, why not carry it on through a reputable, recognized, and approved school club?

14. "*Fraternities and sororities are no more undemocratic than adult organizations to which parents belong.*"—This is probably quite true. The main difference is that one group is made up of mature adults and the other of young, impressionable adolescents. As a rule, the same criteria that apply to an adult group cannot be applied to a teenage group. Liquor may be served at adult functions. Is this a reason for saying that liquor should also be served at high-school functions? Perhaps some adult functions last until three or four o'clock in the morning. Should student groups also plan to stay out that late? The rules that apply to adult activities do not and should not always apply to youth groups.

In addition, these young people are students in a public school which they *must* attend; by law, they are required to go there, whether they like it or not. We have no right to force these people into embarrassing or humiliating situations such as is sometimes done when there are secret societies in the school. Mature adults have learned to take disappointments, hardships, and embarrassments; it is part of life and a part which our youngsters will eventually learn. We have no right to impose this situation upon them while they are still in school. Let's hope that they can handle themselves satisfactorily when they become adults in a world with, among other things, many undemocratic institutions and organizations.

WHAT DID ONE SURVEY SHOW?

On February 14, 1951, Joseph D. Moore, principal of the senior high school in Lansdowne, Pennsylvania, addressed a meeting of high-school principals attending their national convention at Hotel Commodore, New York City. He made a report on the secret society situation in his city and gave excerpts from a study, or survey, that had been made in his

town on this situation. He said, in part, "The secret society problem, said the school, was not a school problem but a parent problem. There was always a sufficient number of parents who either succumbed to the pressure of their children or who really believed that reports of fraternity-sorority pranks were exaggerated, to break down any organized parental resistance that developed in the community. . . .

"Research conducted by the committee presents evidence to show that no person writing on the subject in a school journal or publication favors fraternities and sororities on the junior-senior high-school level. Eighty-three public school administrators . . . were unanimous in their opinion that fraternities and sororities have no place in the modern public secondary-school program. . . .

"There seems little doubt from the results obtained from the study that fraternities are considered inimical to the best interests of the community, the school, and in most cases to the pupils themselves. The overwhelming weight of the opinions studied is that fraternities do not belong in modern democratic school programs because frequently:

1. They narrow sympathies and interests of student members
2. They develop clannishness and snobbishness
3. They set false standards
4. They carry petty politics into the school
5. They are detrimental to school spirit
6. They do not encourage proper use of leisure time
7. They have a bad effect on scholarship
8. They foster habits of extravagance
9. They are undemocratic
10. They stir up strife and contention
11. They lower ethical standards
12. They cause disciplinary problems
13. They dissipate the energies and ambitions of the members
14. They promote undesirable emotional reactions
15. They are either unsupervised or improperly supervised."³

It should be readily apparent from the preceding excerpts that one community has little doubt about what secret societies can do and are doing to the youth of that community.

WHAT DOES ONE PRINCIPAL SAY?

Merle D. Singleton, principal of the senior high school in Sparks, Nevada, wrote an article for the November 1959 issue of *School Activities* magazine entitled "Secret Societies and the Undemocratic Social Activity." He says:

High school fraternities, sororities, exclusive clubs, secret societies, and mystic organizations are phases of the high-school social life that in many in-

³ Joseph D. Moore. How Can the School Administrator Deal with Fraternities and Sororities? *THE BULLETIN* of the National Association of Secondary-School principals, March 1951, pages 324-28.

stances have become more than just a nuisance—they have become an actual menace to the democratic thinking of the remainder of the students in the school.

The origin of the practice is a copy of the fraternity and the sorority situation at a college level. Also, furthering the movement of the organization is perhaps a fulfillment of a social need by certain individuals. Of course, without the guidance of adults, teachers, parents, or administrators, frequently the public relations between the school and the public were strained because of adverse criticism of the organization, for which the school was blamed. To arrive at an understanding, let us examine the various practices of the club that do bring criticism.

1. Initiation practices—from unbecoming to direct brutality
2. Questionable conduct at meetings—carried on without restraint of adults or sponsors
3. Undemocratic selection of members
4. Use of organization to secure special privileges—on athletic teams, in positions of leadership, etc.

The public school is designed to serve the general public and its welfare, and for this reason discriminatory practices are in direct violation of the democratic purposes of the school. According to Johnston and Faunce,⁴ the following are arguments supporting the position that exclusive clubs have no place in the secondary school:

1. They are essentially undemocratic, since membership is not open to all pupils who meet requirements. They do not unify the school—in fact they tend to stratify the high school into classes.

2. They narrow the interests and social contacts of the pupils. Adolescence should be a period of widening horizons touching a wide range of interests and personal associations. The social club tends to limit the range of interests to those which are considered advantageous to the club and personal associations to those who "belong."

3. They tend to set artificial standards of personal worth—drawn, in general, from the more privileged group in money and family prestige.

4. They develop snobbishness on the part of members. Since these clubs include only a small part of the student body, members come to think of themselves as a select group and to ascribe their selection to personal superiority.

5. The discouragement and bitterness of those who fail to make the fraternity or sorority is frequently serious. Many poignant instances of disappointment and heartache of the rejected are given by teachers who serve as confidants to young people.

6. They result in an unfair distribution of honors and positions of importance in the student body. As an organized group, fraternity and sorority members frequently control elections and use influence to place their members in offices and in positions of importance in the extracurricular life of the school.

7. Their influence is inimical to school spirit. Too frequently, the first loyalty is to the fraternity or sorority. Loyalty to the school and to its interests comes second. As social cliques within the school, they have a divisive effect in matters pertaining to the welfare of the entire student body.

Many states have enacted legislation prohibiting these organizations in secondary schools. Where such legislation exists, and where cases have been

⁴ Edgar G. Johnson and Roland C. Faunce. *Student Activities in Secondary Education*. New York: Ronald Press Co. Pp. 156-57.

placed before the courts, it has been ruled that the school is within its rights to take action against those who have affiliated with these groups.

Although it may be difficult to eradicate fraternities and sororities in some communities the only practicable solution is to make the program of activities within the school more attractive than that of the secret organizations; and to focus the membership of the students and the faculty on the desire for better levels of social behavior.

WHAT DO COLLEGE FRATERNITIES SAY?

In October 1954, NASC received a letter from William S. Zerman, assistant to the Dean, University of Michigan. He quoted from the minutes of the Interfraternity Executive Meeting of April-May 1954 in which this appears: "... the Conference went on record as opposing these organizations (high-school secret societies) with the following statement: 'High-school fraternities whose membership is made up of students living at home and occupied during the entire school day can serve no useful purpose to the high-school student body, may easily become a disruptive force in it, and can give a wrong impression of the fraternity concept.' Mr. Brown said the Committee recommended that the Conference reaffirm its position as stated in the 1944 resolution and adopt the following amendment: because high-school students are likely to carry this mistaken concept of fraternity with them into college and, in addition to other objectionable features, the NIC regards high-school fraternities as inimical to the best interests of the college fraternity system."

Thus it appears that, in addition to school administrators, the National Interfraternity Conference, made up of representatives of the many college fraternities also dislike high-school fraternities and believe, as many of us do, that their interests and activities conflict with the best interests of youth and the approved activities of the high school.

WHAT DOES ONE BOARD OF EDUCATION SAY?

The following is taken from the student handbook published by the Evanston, Illinois, Township High School:

SECRET SOCIETIES

Fraternity and Sorority

For many years the Board of Education and the teachers have been unanimous in believing that high-school pupils should not belong to secret societies and they were deeply gratified when existing fraternities voluntarily took definite steps leading to the elimination of their own organizations. Furthermore, on July 9, 1914, the following resolution was adopted by the Board:

"Whereas the Evanston Township High School Board of Education has for many years declared itself opposed to the presence within the school of secret societies or so-called fraternities and sororities,

"Whereas a large number of people of this and other communities are convinced that these societies have no rightful place in any public school system; they are undemocratic in principal and practice; they are subversive of

discipline, injurious to scholarship, and harmful to the best interests of the pupils of the school, whether or not they be members of such societies. They are so detrimental to the general spirit of the school as to require further restrictive action by the Board; therefore be it

"Resolved that the following definition of such societies and the following rules pertaining thereto are hereby adopted:

"Definition: Any organization, composed wholly or in part of high-school students, which seeks to perpetuate itself by taking in additional members on the basis of the personal preference of its membership rather than upon the free choice of any student in the school who is qualified to fulfill the special aims of the organization, and the formation or continuance of which has not previously been authorized or approved by this Board of Education, is a high-school fraternity or sorority, as contemplated by the following rule:

"Rule: No pupil of this school shall join or promise to join, be pledged to become a member of, or solicit any other person to join, promise to join or to be pledged to or to become a member of any high-school fraternity or sorority or of such other similar organization whose activities, in the judgment of this Board, may have an injurious effect upon the discipline or scholarship of said school.

"The penalty for any violation of this rule, or for any false statement or misrepresentation regarding membership in any such society or organization or regarding any violation of these rules, on the part of any pupil of the school, shall be suspension and expulsion from school and the diploma or credits may be permanently withheld from such pupil."

Following long and thoroughgoing consideration by a student committee of leaders, representative of all major school activities and with approval by faculty and Board of Education, it was decided:

That, beginning with the school year of 1944-1945, all participation in offices, memberships, teams, honors, recognition, scholarships, in fact all form of representation of the school, shall be denied to the members of all organizations which have not conformed to the school policy on fraternities and sororities.

Any students of ETHS who become members either of non-conforming old organizations or of new organizations which are banned by the state law shall forfeit any of the above-mentioned recognitions within ETHS.

All students will be expected to keep their records clear in respect to the above policy at all times.

ETHS students have decided that those who are unwilling to accept the law of the state and the regulations of the Board should be denied those privileges which are representative of the school and the integrity for which it stands.

WHAT'S TO BE DONE?

If high-school secret societies are actually undesirable, what should schools and communities do about the whole situation? A number of solutions have been tried in a number of areas, with varying degrees of success.

1. *Ignore them.* This is ridiculous and ineffective, if not downright impossible. Even if we try to ignore them, their members will generally see to it that we know who and what they are. The problem can only get worse if it is ignored.

2. *Recognize and control them.* This, again, is generally unsatisfactory as, strange as it may seem, these organizations do not particularly want to be controlled. That is why they exist in the first place—so that they may do as they please without the danger of school interference. If they wanted to be a controlled group, they would join a recognized school club and submit to the authority and control of school authorities.

3. *Eliminate them.* This is the only solution and the most sensible one. There is no valid reason why these secret organizations should exist in the first place and, therefore, little reason for failure to move against them. This is not easy. There are many who shout loudly about their rights and liberties, and there are some who will take a case to court. As has been said before, the courts, in most instances, have decided against the secret societies. As of 1954, twenty-seven states have laws forbidding or restricting secret societies in high school. Many local school boards have passed restrictive rules and have gone to the extremes of expelling some students who refuse to conform to school rulings.

In some schools where a decision has been made to eliminate secret societies, members have been asked to give up their membership; when they refuse to do so, it has been necessary to expel them from school. In other schools, any student who refuses to give up membership is refused permission to take part in any school activities other than regular classes. This means that he cannot be a member of any school group, cannot play on any team, cannot take part in extracurricular activities, cannot receive any honors, and, in some cases, cannot receive his diploma in the usual manner at Commencement.

No activity of any kind, related to secret societies, should be permitted on school property. Students may not wear any kind of identifying insignia or dress, may not congregate in special spots, may not hold meetings, may not sit as a group, or do anything that might indicate that there is such an organization in existence. Obviously no publicity can be given to their social or other affairs.

Every member of a club, team, or organized activity in the school must sign a statement that he is not a member of any secret society in the school. All candidates for school office must do the same.

Generally, all groups may be allowed to continue until all present members are out of school; no *new* members are permitted. Work must be done in the lower grades and in the junior high school to explain the situation and tell the younger students that there will no longer be secret societies in the high school—and why not.

It is always best to talk to all members and their parents and explain to them why drastic action needs to be taken. The entire system should be carefully reviewed so that members do not feel that they are being "railroaded," but that the action is being taken for their own good. In many instances, the students are most cooperative and there is little trouble. The townspeople must be kept informed about what is happening and why. It may be difficult to get community support for such

a drastic step unless and until the people know what is happening and the reasons for such action.

In an article written for *School Activities* magazine,⁵ James H. M. Erickson suggests various steps to be taken by those schools that want to eliminate secret societies. A portion of his article follows:

1. Well before any action is taken against the secret groups, a positive and sequential program of elimination should be prepared. This program should be a step-by-step procedure, specifically designed to meet the particular situation.

2. The program should be based upon a thorough knowledge of the law in respect to high-school secret societies. If in doubt, assistance should be secured from local legal counsel, the state department of education, and/or the office of the attorney general.

3. The support of the superintendent and of the school board should be sought, since they appear to be essential to a maximally successful elimination program.

4. The program of elimination should include a provision for the gradual increase of pressure against secret societies, rather than a sudden and violent ban against their existence. This will lessen the likelihood of the program's degenerating into a community fight.

5. The pledge card certifying non-membership in secret societies should be considered seriously in the program of elimination as a valuable device for the identification of secret society members. It is an excellent basis for the institution of disciplinary action against violators of the pledge, and its legality has been upheld by the courts.

6. In larger school systems, city-wide action against secret societies adds impetus and stature to the program. It should be sought earnestly, even if the problem exists in but a few of the city schools.

7. The program of elimination should be put into action only after the satisfactory completion of a comprehensive program of pupil, parent, and teacher education in the problem.

School administrators who have the problem of secret societies in their high schools will be interested in the following quotation which appeared originally over fifty years ago but is just as timely and just as germane now as it was at the turn of the century.

FRATERNITY IFS⁶

1. If a fraternity is broad in its aims, looking toward the individual well-being, not only of its members, but of the student body at large;

2. If it is above suspicion as to its methods and motives;

3. If it is founded on generosity and philanthropy, and has for its aims harmony in the government of the school and in the student body;

⁵James H. M. Erickson. "High-School Secret Societies Can Be Eliminated." *School Activities*, January 1955, page 149.

⁶Morrison, G. B. "Fraternity Ifs, N.E.A. Proceedings, 1905, quoted on page 229 in *Extracurricular Activities* by Joseph Roemer and Charles F. Allen, Boston 16: D. C. Heath and Company. 1926.

4. If it is likely to prove beneficial to a boy's sense of honor, truthfulness, and justice;

5. If it promises to make him more loyal to his parents, to his teachers, and to his country;

6. If it broadens his sympathies and his judgment and gives him a high respect for the proper authorities;

7. If it contributes to his intellectual and moral independence and helps him to be a man and to stand upright and alone on all vital and important questions;

8. If it has a tendency to make him catholic and democratic in his character;

9. If it contributes to habits of economy of money, of time, and of physical energy;

If it does all, or a considerable portion, of these things, then it should be encouraged, and a generous place in the educational system should be accorded it. But, on the other hand,

1. If it is narrow in its aims, looking only to the sordid and selfish gratification of its members;

2. If it is not above suspicion, and its motives and methods are forever under censure and discussed;

3. If it is founded on selfishness and its ends have to be gained by questionable practices and dark-lantern proceedings;

4. If it has a tendency to create an estrangement from the faculty and from the student body;

5. If it interferes with the order and discipline, as well as the harmony, of the school;

6. If it is likely to be detrimental to the boy's sense of honor when dealing with those outside of the fraternity;

7. If it is liable to make him less obedient to his parents and less loyal to his school and to his teachers;

8. If it tends to lessen his respect for the constituted authorities;

9. If it is liable to make him self-important and snobbish;

10. If it makes "standing in with the fellows" of greater importance than standing in with true manly character;

11. If it has a tendency to make him clannish and undemocratic;

If all, or any, of these things may reasonably be suspected of secret school fraternities, they should not only be discouraged, but they should be forbidden.

Guidance Program at a New High School

WILLIAM RUBINFELD

WEST ORANGE MOUNTAIN HIGH SCHOOL opened its doors in September 1960. Pre-planning for its guidance program took place in the summer of 1960. The inception of a program in a new school offered an opportunity dreamed of by practically all counselors. Most counselors have generally been in situations where changes had to be effected in an already existing guidance program. At times their programs become a patchwork of many ideas. In our new situation, we found ourselves in the pleasant position of introducing and organizing guidance practices that might result in a well-integrated program.

FIRST STEPS

Our first major task was to write for catalogues and occupational literature. Working hand-in-hand with our librarian, we made arrangements to order duplicate sets of college and school catalogues. We prepared a form letter that could also be used for other types of material, and now we conveniently use this form to fill in our shelves when we discover missing items.

Previous experience with the organization of an occupational library helped us decide that the best interests of the school would be served by having one set of occupational information in the library. Our librarian checked Robert Hoppock's *Occupational Information* and Gertrude Forrester's *Occupational Literature* for a review of the different systems of filing occupational information. In addition, since Dr. Forrester was within commuting distance of our school, we visited her to secure first-hand ideas on techniques of filing occupational information. We finally decided to use a simplified technique that Dr. Forrester had used with much success. This involved using the headings in her book, *Occupational Literature* for the division of the literature. We included the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* numbers on the headings of each file, as well as on each piece of literature. We hoped that this would conserve time if we eventually changed our filing system.

THE TESTING PROGRAM

Organization of our testing program has not been completely resolved, but we believe we are well on the way to taking care of the needs of our students. First we determined to make it mandatory for all college-

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bound juniors to take the *Preliminary Scholastic Aptitude Test* (PSAT). Experience had taught us that, if high-school students were allowed to make up their minds about the importance of this test, a few might defer the experience on the advice of their peers. Adolescent negligence would also keep others from this testing situation.

We have decided to administer the *National Educational Development Tests* to all sophomores and the *National Merit Qualifying Tests* to all juniors. There were some reservations on our part about the administration of these tests to all of our students, particularly since several national educational organizations had questioned the invasion of schools by national testing programs. However, we believed that, for a very reasonable price, these tests would enable us to secure a comparative picture of our school population with students throughout the country. We also hope to repeat the tests the following year to determine if any growth has taken place.

We expect to have our juniors take a scholastic aptitude test, with both verbal and non-verbal factors. The delay is based on the fact that we are waiting for National Defense Education Act funds and endorsement. We consider a test of this type extremely important. It will supply us with a dual IQ score which, in view of the fact that our students appear to have greater language facility, should prove to be much more meaningful to our faculty and other school officials who have to evaluate the records of our students. Added to this is the fact that higher non-language or non-verbal scores may supply us with evidence of individuals with reading limitations.

Insofar as a reading test is concerned, we will not administer a standard test to all of our students, since those coming up from the lower grades of our school system have had several reading tests prior to their entrance into the tenth grade. Instead, we will give reading tests to individuals transferring to our school system, or use them in situations that require a verification of the reading level of some students.

We hope to supplement our testing program by making arrangements with the New Jersey State Employment Service to give all seniors, planning employment upon graduation, the *General Aptitude Test Battery*. Mention will shortly be made of the use of an interest test for all juniors. In individual cases, we may make it possible for seniors to take the *Strong Vocational Interest Test*, with the understanding that they will pay for the scoring.

In reporting the PSAT scores, we first met with the students, and gave them a general picture of the use of test scores, the meaning of the normal curve, norms, percentile rank, and other testing terminology that might add to a better understanding of these scores. Since we believed that parents could profit from an understanding of these scores, we conducted several meetings for them on the meaning and significance of the PSAT and SAT tests.

CONFERENCES WERE HELD

Throughout our first half year, we have conducted many school, college, and career conferences. We notified our faculty of our plans, asked for their forbearance in releasing students from subject classes, and tried to give them ample advance notice of these meetings. Students invited to conferences, which had to be conducted at the convenience of college representatives, were notified of the forthcoming visits through a sheet sent to each home-room. The sheets contained thumbnail descriptions of the school, its population, its accreditation, its curriculum, and other descriptive material that might interest more students in attending.

When conference slips were issued to students, each slip contained a reminder to the student of the priority of subject classes and the fact that an excused absence by a subject teacher was predicated on the student taking complete responsibility for making up assignments. On occasions when students could not be excused to attend a conference, the student was allowed to stop in the guidance office between classes for a brief meeting with the representative.

Our career conferences are based on expressed interests of the students, and attendance is voluntary. The conferences are completely informal and are conducted in accordance with Professor Hoppock's format. (See Robert Hoppock's *Occupational Information*—McGraw-Hill, Publisher, and an article by William Rubinfeld on "Weekly Group Conferences on Careers" appearing in *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, December 1954.)

After meeting with our English faculty, we arranged for a career project in all junior English classes. A member of the guidance staff does the initial orientation, which emphasizes the importance of the project and the eventual use of developed techniques by students at any time they are considering changes in occupational plans or are seriously deciding on a future career. Emphasis in the orientation session is placed on the importance of the use of occupational literature, the use of the interview technique for gaining firsthand information about careers, and the recognition of professional services available through agencies, college counseling centers, or private practitioners.

After this introductory session, students take the *Kuder Interest Test* to motivate them in applying themselves to the study of a career, as well as defining their interests. The guidance department issues a mimeographed outline of the project, with a bibliography, and makes available interview questionnaire sheets. In addition, teachers and students are notified that the guidance staff is available for assistance with the project. A session is held in the library to acquaint the students with the occupational files, career material, and school and college catalogues.

We do not have a senior class at the present time, but we have projected conferences to take care of their needs. For the boys, we will conduct a series of meetings concerned with the problem of military service. For girls who are planning on employment, we will bring in personnel people from local industry. One of our counselors will also

handle placement for students seeking employment after graduation. Since we are fortunate in having excellent free post-high-school technical training programs in our county, we will invite representatives of these county institutions to address our students on their available offerings.

PARENT CONTACTS

We have been involving parents in our program in a number of ways. Meetings of parents on a home-room basis were conducted from week to week during the school year. At these meetings the parents met with our principal, assistant principal, and guidance staff members. These parents were given the school's philosophy, a description of the curriculum, plans for extracurricular activities, and a detailed description of the guidance program.

For the parents of college-bound juniors, we extended an invitation by mail for an evening meeting on "The Problem of Selecting a College." After the dissemination of PSAT scores to the students, we entertained small groups of parents to offer them some of the basic concepts involved in the use and interpretation of these test scores. After our first marking period, we sent letters to parents of students who were encountering academic difficulties and recommended that they make appointments with individual teachers.

As of this date we have sent out, *via* the mails, two newsletters. These newsletters, which have met with parental approval, were instituted by the guidance staff. In addition to announcements of planned conferences and other guidance activities, we have included other news items relating to school activities. We hope to send out a minimum of four of these letters per year. This should prove to be an effective way of communicating with parents and assuring us that important information is placed in the hands of all parents.

INDIVIDUAL PUPIL CONFERENCE

The core of our entire program centers around the individual sessions we have with each student. We will conduct a minimum of two scheduled conferences with each of our students during the school year. We have also sent out special request slips to home rooms, making it possible for students to ask for additional conferences at any time.

This article has attempted to cover both what we have done and what we plan to do in the future. We believe that the program has been well received by our parents and the community. We know that many of the successes that we have achieved are based on the total support given us by our principal and assistant principal, both of whom have a philosophy that emphasizes "doing anything within reason that will help individual students achieve their goals."

Capable High School Graduates Can Finance Their College Education

ROLAND KEENE
FRANK C. ADAMS

HIGH-SCHOOL guidance counselors (and, alas, many high-school principals as well who accept part or all the responsibility for pre-college counseling) are familiar with the talented young boy or girl who should go to college, but whose financial circumstances are so serious that college is almost out of the question.

For some students, a tuition scholarship will suffice. For others a loan is the best solution to their financial barrier to college. For still others, a combination of loan and scholarship will solve the difficulty. But loans and scholarships will not provide for all academically capable, financially needy high-school graduates who should continue their education in an institution of higher learning. And each boy and girl who should go to college but who is prevented by financial difficulties represents an incalculable loss to this nation and the society it represents.¹

Many colleges and universities have some means for advising or assisting students to find part-time jobs while attending school and thus help them to help themselves solve their financial problems. In certain academic and other quarters in our society, "work" seems to be a nasty word. Yet real work has turned this wilderness into a great nation and is necessary for the continued existence of our society. Honest work yet remains honorable in these United States, and it is not inconceivable that a college student may get more from real work than the money he uses to defray his college expenses. There are those who feel that work aids immeasurably in fostering a sensible maturity in the individual and in tempering his character.

SOUTHERN'S WORK PROGRAM

While work has consequences other than financial for the part-time worker in college, Southern Illinois University has developed a part-time work program that is designed to meet the financial needs of the academically capable, financially needy student as well as provide educationally worth-while experiences. Since Southern is a state university

¹ An excellent discussion of this problem on the national level is to be found in: The President's Committee on Education Beyond High School, *Second Report to the President*. Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, 1957. This report (page 54) indicates that 100,000 able high-school graduates annually do not go on to college because of financial reasons.

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and subject to the regulations of the Illinois University Civil Service Commission, no civil service worker can be displaced by student workers. However, the institution, like many others in the nation, is undergoing a period of rapid growth creating many new jobs which can be classified as student jobs within the regulations of the state civil service. During 1958-1959, over 2,900 students worked for the University during this academic year. This represented some thirty-seven per cent of the total enrollment. The average number of students on current payrolls ranges between 1,700 and 2,000. These students work up to a maximum of 120 hours per month and receive a check from state funds or from auxiliary service funds.

This program is designed so that a worthy student, working at the minimum rate and the maximum hours, could earn sufficient funds to live in a campus dormitory and pay all his expenses including resident tuition. Such students usually work full-time during the summer and during vacation periods. Five hundred twenty-seven students are earning all their expenses on the program at the present time.

This work program is in an experimental and developmental stage, and includes individual analysis of each case and guidance related both to the student's financial problem and the student's academic program. For example, the wide variety of jobs on the program makes it possible to accommodate the student who needs little work, considerable work, or the maximum amount of work permitted, and at the same time allows the student to be matched with the job with individual consideration for the student's skills and academic program as well as financial need. In order to provide time for orientation to college, the beginning freshman is counseled to try the first term without working providing that his financial situation will permit it. However, in those cases that are urgent, the freshman is permitted to work the first term, and his academic load is reduced and adjusted in proportion to his ability and the amount of work required.

Another example of the experimental nature of the student work program at Southern Illinois University is the attempt to relate the work to the academic specialty of the student. By the time the student is a junior, there is a definite attempt to place him in a job that is directly related to his major. The work program is as broad in scope as the academic programming. There are the usual jobs in food service and janitorial work. These jobs are usually filled by underclassmen. The jobs requiring some degree of technical skill are filled by upperclassmen and by unusual freshmen and sophomores who have developed these skills. Examples of such technical jobs are architectural drafting in the architect's office; working on the Survey Crew, medical laboratory technicians in health service; laboratory workers in such laboratories as physics, chemistry, and microbiology; research workers; supervisors of other student workers; bus drivers; library workers; advanced mathematics students in the Computing Center; forestry and farm workers; and even under-

graduates who teach elementary college subjects such as non-credit mathematics. The University offices provide a wide range of employment related to business management, personnel work, and other business specialties. It is the belief of student work program officials at Southern that employment, in a realistic situation that is definitely related to the student's academic major, will result in a concomitant learning of considerable value to the student.

All students on the program are watched carefully to make sure that their employment and the time spent on their jobs do not adversely affect their academic progress. Student workers whose marks in their academic subjects fall below "C" (3.000) are called in to the Student Work Office for a counseling session. (A mark of "C" is required for graduation from Southern Illinois University.) As a result of this counseling, the student's working hours may be reduced, or his academic load restricted, or both. In extreme cases, the student is removed from the work program until his academic effort recovers.

RESULTS

A study done in the fall of 1958 (before the counseling sessions on academic progress became effective as a selective factor) showed that the working student does not, in the over-all picture, suffer academically because of his work.² The entire University enrollment was included in this study, and the 1,792 students who worked part-time for the University that term achieved significantly higher in their studies (based on their over-all academic averages) than the students who did not hold part-time jobs. Subsequent studies with matched groups have revealed a similar tendency. The research done on this subject at Southern has not attempted to infer casual relationships, but theoretically it is suspected that the student who is willing to take a part-time job in order to provide for part of his finances in college is a more mature person than the non-worker, a person with a realistic goal in life, a steady outlook and attitude, and the ability to adjust readily to new situations. Further research is to be designed with these ideas in mind.

The above description of a student work program at one institution of higher learning has been offered as an example of one more thing that can be done to broaden the opportunity for every deserving young person to pursue his education to the limit of his capacity. As the colleges and universities of this nation turn to the problems of the next decade, every opportunity should be capitalized upon to increase the opportunity for capable students to continue their education.

² Keene, Roland, "An Exploratory Study of the Student Employment Program on the Carbondale Campuses of Southern Illinois University, 1958," Student Work Office, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, Illinois, (mimeographed), June 1, 1959.

Helping Parents Understand Adolescence

EDWARD R. CUONY

"I JUST can't understand these teenagers." "What is it that makes them tick?" These and many other similar statements are heard almost every day from parents of junior high-school pupils.

Those of us who have worked with this age group recognize that the period of adolescence, especially early adolescence, is a period when the youngster appears to act like an adult one day and then in a very child-like manner the next. It is during these years that boys and girls are beginning to concentrate on the business of becoming adults and putting away their childish things. The period of early adolescence is a period of transition; therefore, it is only natural to expect a great deal of confusion and uncertainty on the part of those going through this period of transition. The wavering between adult behavior and childish behavior is an expression of a very real attempt to establish their independence, trying out the unknown and then returning to the security of the old habits they had during childhood.

This is all a part of growing up. It is a part of the adolescent's desire to achieve adult freedom and still retain those elements of security which he knew as a child. The adolescent is not the only one who is a variable person, parents themselves change attitudes. They sometimes look at their adolescent boy or girl and expect too much; then at the next moment expect too little. The whole process of growing and developing is a complicated one and it is during the period of early adolescence that complications seem to be most severe.

The adolescent is faced with the problems as well as the parent. The adolescent years may be difficult, but they are never dull. They can be exciting years and challenging years for the young girl or boy and for the parent too.

At our parent meetings at the Geneva Junior High School, many of our parents voiced an interest in securing some help in understanding the growth processes of the early adolescent. They were interested in having us develop a series of programs to help them understand their youngsters and the growth process during the crucial junior high-school years.

A committee of parents working with the principal and guidance personnel developed a series of meetings designed to help parents better understand the period of early adolescence. We secured the help of some of the people at the local colleges, the school nurse, and the school physician. The following is an outline of the six meetings which were held with parents.

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UNIT ONE

Adolescence as a Period of Human Growth

- I. Objectives of the Adolescent Period
 - A. General Emotional Maturity
 - B. Establishment of Heterosexual Interests
 - C. General Social Maturity
 - D. Emancipation from Home Control
 - E. Intellectual Maturity
 - F. Selection of Future
 - G. Use of Leisure
 - H. Philosophy of Life
- II. Growth in Tissue, Muscle, and Bone
 - A. Height and Weight
 1. General Curves
 2. Growth Rates in Different Groups
 3. Individual Differences in Growth
 - B. Bodily Types
 1. Indirect Results of Differences in Size and Build
 - C. Motor Coordination, Strength, and Athletic Skills
 1. Coordination and Agility
 2. Strength
 3. Athletic Skills
 - D. Skeletal Growth
 1. Bone Structure
 2. Growth of Teeth
 3. Proportional Growth
 4. Growth of Facial Bones and Features
- III. Physiological Growth and Its Relationship to Behavior
 - A. Growth in Circulatory, Respiratory, Digestive, and Neural Systems
 - B. Glandular Systems
 1. Duct Glands
 2. Ductless Glands
 - C. Sexual Maturity
 1. Sex Organs
 2. Age of Sexual Maturity
 3. Secondary Sex Characteristics
 4. Reactions to Sexual Maturity
- IV. Health and Hygiene
 - A. Chronic Conditions
 1. Eyesight
 2. Defects of Hearing
 3. Defects of Speech
 - B. Hygiene for Adolescence

UNIT TWO

Emotional Development

- I. Emotional Growth
 - A. Nature of Emotions
 1. Human Needs
 2. Nature of Emotional Experiences
 - a. Physical basis for emotions
- II. Major Emotions
 - A. Anger
 1. Emotional States Leading to Anger

- B. Inhibitory or Defensive Behavior; *i.e.*, fear, worry, dread, sorrow, embarrassment, *etc.*
- C. Joy
- III. Frustrations, Tensions, Conflict, Adjustment, and Escape
 - 1. Nature of Conflict
 - 2. Escapes from Conflict
- IV. Personality
 - A. Types of Personality
 - 1. Self-directive
 - 2. Adaptive
 - 3. Submissive
 - 4. Defiant
 - 5. Unadjusted
 - B. Measures of Personality
- V. Problems of Junior High-School Students
 - A. Problems of Health
 - B. Problems of Personality
 - C. Problems of Home and Family
 - D. Problems of Social Status
 - E. Problems of Heterosexual Relationships
 - F. Problems of Religion and Morals
 - G. Problems of School and Study
- VI. Recognition of Maladjustment
 - A. Physical Symptoms
 - B. Symptoms of Emotional Immaturity
 - C. Symptoms of Social Inadequacy
 - D. Symptoms of Abnormal Emotionalism
 - E. Symptoms of Exhibitionism
 - F. Symptoms of Intellectual Involvement
 - G. Symptoms of Antisocial Tendencies

UNIT THREE

Social Development

- I. Social Growth
 - A. Spontaneous Social Life Among Adolescents
 - 1. Gang
 - 2. Crowd
 - 3. Peer Culture
 - 4. Clique
 - B. Selection of Friends
 - 1. Bases for Friendships
 - 2. Heterosexual Friendships
 - a. Dating patterns
 - 3. Popular and Unpopular Individuals
 - C. Social Acceptance and Rejection
 - 1. Popular and Unpopular
 - 2. Traits Admired or Disliked
 - D. Influence of Social Class
- II. The Adolescent and His Home
 - A. The Modern Family
 - B. Classification and Characteristics of Homes
 - 1. Patterns of Parental Behavior
 - a. Actively rejectant
 - b. Nonchalant rejectant

- c. Casually rejectant
- d. Casually indulgent
- e. Acceptant indulgent
- f. Acceptant-casual-indulgent
- g. Acceptant-indulgent-democratic
- h. Acceptant-democratic
- 2. Effects of Parental Attitudes Upon Children
- 3. Patterns of Authority in the Family
- 4. Factors Affecting the Impact of the Home Upon the Adolescent
- C. Homes for Adolescents and Adolescent Attitudes toward Homes
 - 1. Emancipation from Home Control
 - 2. Parental Adjustment to Society
 - 3. Pride in the Home
 - 4. Security in the Home
 - 5. Harmony in the Home
 - 6. Identification in the Home
 - 7. Interest in the Home

UNIT FOUR

Moral Development

- I. Growth in Attitudes
 - A. Religious Attitudes
 - B. Honesty
 - C. Ideals
 - D. Developing a Philosophy of Life
- II. Influences on Attitudes
 - A. Community
 - B. Home

UNIT FIVE

Intellectual Development

- I. Mental Growth
 - A. Measurement of Adolescent Intelligence
 - B. Intellectual Growth
 - 1. General Intelligence
 - 2. Factors of Intelligence
 - 3. Harvard Studies
 - C. Development of Individual Mental Capacities
 - 1. Memory
 - 2. Imagination
 - 3. Suggestibility
 - 4. Reasoning and Insights
- II. Interests
 - A. Adolescent Activities
 - 1. Use of Leisure Time
 - B. TV, Radio and Motion Pictures
 - 1. TV
 - 2. Radio
 - 3. Motion Pictures
 - C. Collecting
 - D. Play (Recreation)
 - E. Interests in Reading
- III. Special Problems of Academically Able and Academically Handicapped
- IV. Homework in Junior High School

The school physician, the guidance personnel, and the principal acted as discussion leaders for these meetings. The meetings, of which there were six, were usually divided into two sections. The first part of the meeting was devoted to a panel discussion of the topic of the evening; the second half of the meeting was devoted to questions from the audience. The attendance at these meetings was extremely good. The parents seemed to enjoy it and they have asked us to continue these meetings.

It is interesting to note that several parents took the time and effort to write us letters after the meetings were over, congratulating us on the project. We feel that the project had several outcomes. The discussion meetings seemed to help parents to understand their youngsters better. Many of them mentioned to us that they were so happy that they came because it gave them a greater insight into their own children and the process of development. The second outcome, as we viewed it, was one of greater understanding of the guidance process. The guidance personnel noticed that those people who had attended the meetings seemed to be more aware of the needs of their youngsters in terms of social and educational aspirations. The guidance conferences with these parents seemed to be much more efficient. Basically, we viewed these meetings as a group guidance project with parents.

The Guidance Program and Curriculum Improvement

J. FRED MURPHY

THE high-school principal today must extend his responsibility beyond that of "making all members of the staff sensitive to, and responsible for guidance and counseling." His efforts must be directed toward the development of poignant techniques and methods adjusted to the penetrating and enduring prevailing demands of the public.

There are several characteristics of the guidance and counseling program which can help to improve the curriculum. The most salient activities and practices relate to:

1. Identification of basic pupils' characteristics
2. Placement of pupils on bases of personal characteristics

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3. Development of instructional opportunities which will provide for potential individual intellectual competencies
4. Acquisition and use of data obtained through follow-up practices
5. Recognition of "power structures" which influence curriculum revision.

IDENTIFICATION OF BASIC PUPILS' CHARACTERISTICS

The prime concern of the guidance staff is to obtain reliable personal data about all the pupils served. Recommendations for curriculum improvement can result from sound interpretation of data secured about pupils.

Pre-orientation of pupils to high school demands that pupils, teachers, and parents have accurate information about the nature of the curricular offerings at the receiving school. In turn, the sending school should present accurate test and achievement data, potential capacities for learning, and educational plans about the pupils. Individual interviewing should take place with each pupil and parent as boys and girls plan for high school. A personnel record with dates should be kept of each interview.

Pupils with superior abilities, capacities, and talents should be identified definitely to the guidance staff of the receiving high school. Appropriate records plus interviews by the high-school counselors with such pupils and parents are imperative.

A special list of superior and talented youth should be prepared by the high-school guidance personnel. This list should be the bases for appropriate individual pupil subject planning and selection. In addition, the degree of instructional difficulties should be such that the educational experiences are challenging at all times.

Through the personal data furnished teachers, pupils must be "followed-through" to determine (a) if achievement correlates with capacities, and (b) if capable youth receive challenging instruction. The guidance personnel must assume this ever increasingly important function.

The testing program is rapidly becoming a major phase of the guidance and counseling program. Both state and national programs of testing have now penetrated every school which attempts to keep up with trends in secondary education. The instructional program of a high school is to a noticeable extent appraised publicly by results on scholarship qualifying and standardized achievement tests.

The high-school principal through his guidance personnel must, therefore, analyze the curriculum to determine where more vigorous instruction, in light of current test results, can be developed. By the same token more intensive provisions must be made for test data interpretations through systematic individual counseling. A detailed cumulative record for each pupil is inherent in the plan.

PLACEMENT OF PUPILS

As variation in abilities, capacities, and talents are identified, proper pupil placement curricular-wise is imperative in an effective guidance and

counseling program. Thus a high school is committed to an intensive as well as an extensive curricular program.

The guidance personnel utilizing personal data about pupils should work closely with the principal in promoting the availability and development of multiple-track curricular experiences for pupils. The small school will find it necessary to adjust instruction within a given classroom group; the larger school will find it necessary to adjust instruction through groupings for the talented, the average, and the below average pupils.

The development of multiple-track instructional programs in different subject areas places heavier responsibilities on the guidance personnel. Effective individual counseling herewith involves helping (a) pupils to understand their potentialities, (b) pupils to accept the educational experiences most challenging to them, (c) parents to understand the limitations as well as the capabilities of their sons and daughters, (d) pupils and their parents to realize that personal capabilities may or may not match-up with personal desires, (e) and, pupils and their parents to be aware of the importance of quality rather than quantity performances.

Placement of high-school graduates in colleges and universities for which pupils have appropriate abilities, capacities, and achievement has become more significant than personal choices of colleges and universities. Rejections of high-school graduates for admission to colleges and universities of their choices have already resulted in educational reverberations about high-school preparation.

Results of national qualifying tests are becoming more and more important in determining admission of graduates to colleges and universities. Coexistent with this definite testing trend is the use of such results to help determine recipients of scholarships.

Curricular improvement should result from guidance personnel encouraging more experience on the part of all pupils to write essay answers to test questions. This is another example of how the guidance personnel can be aggressive intra-school wise and see to it that pupils have challenging curricular experiences.

Placement of pupils and graduates in gainful employment demands (a) more emphasis on quality performance in high school, (b) more authentic information from employers to the staff about what is expected of employees for specific jobs, (c) more systematic procedures in counseling with pupils and parents about employment opportunities and requirements, (d) and more help be given the instructional staff in providing necessary curricular experiences for a wide variety of abilities, capacities, and interests.

Pupils who accept home responsibilities upon leaving high school, should have received a balanced curricular experience. Through counseling, such pupils should be given the opportunity to achieve in subjects related to everyday citizenship requirements as well as to skills and knowledge required with home responsibilities.

DEVELOPMENT OF INSTRUCTIONAL OPPORTUNITIES

The number and kinds of instructional opportunities afforded pupils should be based on the needs of the clientele served. Basically, the guidance personnel can help to improve the curriculum by using different methods and techniques to measure the degree to which all pupils achieve in the fundamental skills—grammar, reading, spelling, and arithmetic. Objective, standardized tests should be used progressively by grades. Individual test results of the respective pupils should be given to the teachers.

The guidance personnel should follow through to determine that pupils achieve in the fundamental skills at least equal to the pupils' capabilities. This follow through includes (a) counseling with parents about the pupil's data, and (b) giving pupils pertinent information. Beyond receiving the information, pupils must accept personal responsibilities to develop proper attitudes and practices for appropriate accomplishment. A variety of curricular offerings is necessary in an American high school to provide pupils with educational experiences which will challenge them as well as help them to reach their goals.

A multiple-track instructional program is one promising way for a high school to use effectively objective data about pupils. It may be developed in one or more ways. They are:

1. Provide variations in a course of study in order to have progressively increased difficult materials within a given class
2. Provide variations in courses of study in order to have progressively increased difficult materials within a given subject at a given grade level
3. Provide variations in the number and kinds of high-school subjects in order to have progressively increased difficult materials throughout all high-school grades to meet the needs of all pupils

Inherent in these ways of improving the curriculum is the potential realism that pupils will be obligated more than ever before to have greater proficiency in the (a) fundamental skills—reading, spelling, writing, speech, and arithmetic, (b) academic subjects of mathematics, science, and foreign and modern languages, (c) and, subjects for which special talents and abilities are displayed—music, art, practical arts, and business education.

The principal, in reflecting upon the objective data obtained through the guidance and counseling program, may appoint departmental committees or a school-wide committee to project any necessary curricular changes for staff appraisal and usage. Any such committee must be a truly representative one. Committee decisions have then a chance of staff acceptance.

ACQUISITION AND USE OF DATA

There are at least three significant types of annual follow-up studies which contribute to curriculum improvement through the guidance and counseling program. They are:

1. A survey to determine what happens to all the school leavers
2. A survey to determine to what extent pupils achieve to their potential capabilities and to what extent they are progressing toward their goals
3. Conferences with former graduates on college campuses to determine their successes and/or failures due to high-school experiences

Information obtained about school leavers, graduates and nongraduates, should include (a) schooling beyond high school, (b) gainful employment, (c) and home and community membership. Telephone inquiries to the homes of school leavers supplemented by mail inquiries for those who cannot be contacted by telephone are the two most promising methods of collecting follow-up data.

Some colleges and universities have programs whereby principals and counselors are invited to the campuses to interview freshmen who were former graduates of the high schools represented. College test data and achievement records about the students during the first part of the freshman year are valuable in the personal conferences. Information obtained from the college freshmen who are former high-school graduates should be a usable guide for curricular improvement suggestions. Employers of former students can furnish significant facts through conferences with the principal and/or counselor, telephone inquiries, and correspondence.

Any special follow-up study should be planned so that it is repeated annually for at least five years, preferably ten. Reliable trends in what happens to the school leavers can be determined best when carefully planned and continued on a long-range basis.

RECOGNITION OF "POWER STRUCTURES"

In recent years, educational philosophy has included the belief that lay groups, community agencies and businesses, and organizations should influence the curriculum of the educational institutions. This phase of current educational philosophy has become so important that segments of our society have organized to achieve their objectives. Thus, "power structures" affect the high-school program today.

Through the guidance and counseling program there are activities and practices which can tend to keep the curricular suggestions of "power structures" constructive.

1. Civic, professional, and business organizations use their membership to conduct occupational conferences or to provide individual interviews with pupils about educational and vocational planning. A principal and/or counselor can present objectives data during such activities to show the value of the curricular offerings. Constructive suggestions for improvement in the curriculum may be identified and projected for study and action.

2. Community organizations interested in the financial support of high schools may project ideas by which the curricular program should be retrenched. At the same time, a principal and/or counselor have the responsibilities for identifying and satisfying the needs of the pupils served. Variations in students' abilities, interests, capacities, achievements, and goals challenge the school to

have an effective and flexible curricular program. A greater challenge is to demonstrate to such people that the pupils' quality of work coincides with their intellectual potentialities and curricular attempts. Retrenchment may or may not result in curriculum improvement. The guidance personnel, including the principal, must help to determine the policy by utilizing data to show how effectively the challenges are met.

3. Officials, representatives and alumni of institutions of higher learning are a part of the "power structure." Counseling pupils about college is becoming more difficult. More restrictive admission requirements or more rigid selective processes as established by colleges and universities have a tendency to amplify local curricular problems. Rejection of a graduate for admission to a college of his or her choice produces a demand for curricular improvement. One answer to this problem can be found in the efforts of the high-school principal and/or counselors to work very closely with college admissions officers. Methods must be developed by which the curriculum of a high school is clearly understood by college admissions officers. At the same time objective data about instructional standards should be available to and understood by colleges and universities. Deliberate discussions can result in wholesome curriculum improvement if such problems are approached with an understanding that they are mutual matters to be resolved cooperatively.

This discussion relates the truism that current educational trends are intensifying the role of the high-school principal in attempting to improve the curriculum through the guidance and counseling program. His success in such responsibility will be proportional to his personal philosophy and understanding about the relationship of the curriculum to the guidance and counseling program, and *vice versa*. The size and composition of the school must determine to a great extent what specialized guidance service will be necessary. However, the ultimate goals must be to have all: (1) teachers actively engaged in understanding and working with the data, techniques, and practices which will promote curriculum improvement; and (2) pupils challenged by an instructional program which requires quality work and achievement based on their potential abilities, talents, capacities, and goals.

ARE YOU "PACKAGING" MATERIALS?

IN THE NEA study of the impact of technology upon education, we are examining the development of "packaging" of materials. By this we mean the combining of media and materials into an instructional package or system of materials, to teach part or all of a course. If your school, or business is "packaging" or plans to "package" materials, would you please contact us promptly.

Write to: Lee E. Campion, Associate Investigator, Technological Development Project, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C.

What Counselors Think of Home Room Teachers' Values of High School Subjects

HARRY C. PRY

IN A recent study of what counselors think of the values which home-room teachers ascribe to the subjects in the high school curriculum, the writer used an unstructured interview with twelve high-school counselors in Western Pennsylvania. An open-end type of questionnaire, it consisted of the author's sitting down with each of the twelve counselors in selected high schools and attempting to find out from them what deficiencies or defects homeroom teachers possess in their educational counseling of pupils in curriculum and subject selection.

Each counselor was asked to go down the roster of home-room teachers in his school to attempt to cite specific examples of teachers' prejudices, blind spots, or ignorances in their knowledge of the school subjects. Thus the author recorded a series of critical incidents¹ from which he interpreted teachers' capacity for doing curricular counseling as a clue to their evaluation of the subjects of the curriculum.

There were no broadside deficiencies asked for, but, rather, suggestions of deficiencies in their knowledge of subject values, such as:

1. Do teachers seem not to know the bearing of mathematics upon engineering?

2. Or, do teachers seem not to know the values of home economics in occupations other than home-making—such as occupations in restaurants and some occupations in department stores?

3. Or, do any teachers discourage pupils from taking Latin or any other subjects?

4. Or, from what counselors hear of the advisement of pupils, what blind spots do teachers possess?

The number of teachers in each counselor's school was obtained and tabulations made as to the percentages who possess blind spots and deficiencies and the nature of such deficiencies. Both teachers and schools were kept anonymous.

The following criteria were set up in selecting the counselors. It was established that they should:

1. Have a knowledge of the staff personnel in their school system;

2. Be in a school where home-room teachers have some responsibility for educational counseling;

¹ Lewis B. Mayhew, "The Critical Incident in Educational Evaluation," *The Journal of Educational Research*, 49 (April 1956), pages 591-598.

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3. Be in a school in which they have been working with home-room teachers and know them; and

4. Be in a senior high school only, because of the variety of subject choices to be made.

The writer was interested in examples from each counselor of the incidents in home-room teachers' educational and curricular counseling of high-school students which came to his mind. The counselor went over his high-school's roster of teachers and talked about examples of the following weaknesses of home-room teachers:

1. Ignorance of values
2. Mistaken notions of values
3. Prejudices which operate to favor or disfavor certain subjects

The following table illustrates the types of prejudiced advice which counselors reported home-room teachers offered to pupils, with a percentage distribution of their frequency of mention. These percentages represent the number of teachers in a total of 583, constituting the faculties of the twelve schools visited. If the counselor reported 10 teachers, for example, as having advised pupils in a specifically prejudicial way as to their subject selection, a percentage was calculated, as shown in the table. Since the interviews were instructured and the examples of prejudiced or ignorant counseling differed from school to school, most of the percentages are obviously low. The interview was not suggestive of answers, as a check list would have been. The reader is cautioned to interpret these responses in the light of the method pursued, since no attempt was made by the writer to induce the counselor-respondents to discuss deficiencies similar to those cited by counselors in any of the previous interviews.

Types of Prejudiced Advice Which Counselors Reported Home-Room Teachers Offered to Pupils, with a Percentage Distribution of Their Frequency of Mention.

<i>Types of Prejudiced Advice</i>	<i>Per cent (583 Teachers)</i>
I. Advice offered to pupils in the selection of <i>major</i> subjects.	
a. Teachers felt that the college-preparatory sequence of mathematics was mainly available for "training the mind".....	8.56
b. Teachers conveyed to pupils generally their favor for the college preparatory course, thus giving it highest prestige.....	10.29
c. All pupils were warned of difficult subjects in the curriculum..	2.57
d. Teachers ignored certain obvious values of major subjects....	.51
e. Teachers failed to appreciate the value of Latin.....	17.15
f. Teachers of major subjects tended to claim too much for their subjects	2.57
g. Teachers of major subjects recruited pupils to follow their own field of specialization.....	34.30

Type of Prejudiced Advice	Per cent (583 Teachers)
II. Advice offered to pupils in the selection of <i>minor</i> subjects.	
a. All pupils were advised to take certain subjects for easy credit	1.37
b. Teachers attempted to protect themselves from weak pupils...	7.72
c. Teachers ignored certain obvious values in the minor subjects	.51
d. Pupils were advised to take certain subjects because teachers aspired to be popular with their advisees.....	1.72
e. Teachers revealed to pupils less respect for minor subjects than for major ones	7.03
f. Teachers felt that industrial arts courses had value only for job preparation.....	25.73
g. Teachers desired to strengthen their own subject enrollment by minimizing the values of the minor subjects.....	3.43
III. Advice based on teachers' subject specialties.	
a. Mathematics teachers saw little value other than recreational in other subjects.....	4.28
b. Latin teachers advised pupils to elect mathematics courses for the sake of mental discipline values.....	1.72
c. Industrial arts teachers held foreign language study in low regard	3.43
d. Music and art teachers advised pupils to elect <i>their</i> subjects because they said that pupils would obtain aesthetic values in no other subject.....	1.72
e. Business teachers could see obvious values in English but little value in science and mathematics.....	2.57
f. Academic teachers "looked down" on non-academic subjects..	15.09
g. Non-academic teachers "looked down" on academic subjects..	1.03
h. Science teachers tended to encourage pupils to elect all branches of science.....	4.28
IV. Miscellaneous evidences.	
a. Beginning teachers were too subject-conscious, thus blindly ignoring many values of their own subjects.....	3.43
b. Women teachers, more so than men, tended to advise pupils of recreational, health, and aesthetic values of the subjects..	2.92
c. Teachers tended to ignore the values in minor subjects for pupils of exceptional ability.....	10.29
d. Teachers advised pupils of exceptional ability to elect the "hard-core" subjects regardless of pupils' demonstrated ability in the minor subjects.....	12.86

SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS

The interviews with the twelve counselors in which they canvassed the rosters of the home-room teachers in their schools and reported evidence of subject prejudices which had come to their attention brought forth the following opinions with sufficient frequency to merit recording in this summary of the findings:

1. Teachers viewed the college preparatory sequences of mathematics as mainly valuable for "training the mind." (9 per cent)
2. Teachers conveyed to pupils generally their favor for college-preparatory curriculum, thus giving it highest prestige. (10 per cent)
3. Teachers failed to appreciate the value of Latin. (17 per cent)

4. Teachers of major subjects recruited pupils for their own fields of specialization. (34 per cent)

5. Teachers felt that industrial arts courses have value only for job preparation. (26 per cent)

6. Teachers tended to ignore the values of minor subjects for pupils of exceptional ability and to advise such pupils to elect the "hard-core" subjects even when the pupil had demonstrated his ability in a minor subject. (23 per cent)

The evidence coming from the school counselors is such as to cast a shadow of doubt on the competency and the integrity of home-room teachers for adequately performing the function of curricular guidance. Selfish motives appeared with some frequency in the counselors' characterizations of home-room teachers' practices. After all, it must be remembered that the home-room teacher is first of all a subject teacher and may be expected to consider his own advantage in that larger area of his work. This is a peril in counseling by home-room teachers that must be reckoned with.

To counteract the tendencies to exploit pupils by tactics of recruitment for favored subjects, which were revealed in the interviews with counselors, supervision must be employed. When the major responsibility for curriculum counseling is delegated to twenty or fifty teachers, it stands to reason that they should receive instruction, inspection, and inspiration if the function is to be discharged with efficiency and with observance of the highest ethical standards.

Home Room Guidance Is Not Enough

CLEMONT E. VONTRESS

MOST educational administrators will agree that there is a need for organized guidance activities in the school; but what yet is to be resolved is the method, technique, or organizational plan that is most effective, and perhaps, what is more important, most administratively practical.

One method which is used most widely is the organization of guidance activities through the home room (4, 204). This is perhaps done more out of practicality than effectiveness. However, if administrators are going to give more than lip-service to guidance, a good, long look must be given to the home-room guidance plan.

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This writer maintains that, in most high schools, this plan is hardly an effective one. A major part of guidance is counseling, a face-to-face relationship. This is not easy work (6, 195), it takes time. In view of the multiplicity of activities that are centered in the home room, it is inconceivable that the teacher can do an effective job in either group guidance or counseling, whether the period is ten minutes or sixty minutes long (4, 205). If there were time for group guidance, it is doubtful that every teacher can successfully handle such activities (3, 413).

Moreover, an effective guidance program should include accurate and comprehensive record keeping on every student (7, 13). Does the home-room teacher have time for such record keeping? If she does take the time, will this detract from her teaching effectiveness? These are questions which every administrator should seek to answer with all seriousness.

An assumption on which the home-room guidance plan is apparently predicated is that all teachers are potential guidance workers and that they are, therefore, "guidance minded" (8, 421). This, needless to say, is spurious. Guidance workers should be not only genuinely interested in boys and girls, but also trained to cope with the many difficult problems that impede the educational process (8, 421).

Guidance workers need much information about students in order to help them solve these problems (6, 197). It is obligatory that they be able to contact many persons in and out of school to get this information (5, 119).

In many high schools, the home room, which once may have been a guidance unit, has degenerated into an administrative catch-all used for making announcements, checking attendance, and the like (1, 327). Such a unit usually consists of from 25 to 40 students (2, 259), although, in senior home rooms, there are sometimes as many as 100 or even 300, depending on the size of the school. If the teacher has never taught the students (and many have not), she may never really get to know them (5, 118). This is a violation of one of the most important guidance and counseling principles.

What about home-room teachers who have received either pre-service or in-service training? Experience has shown that, in spite of all the training which the teacher may have had, she is still unable to do an adequate job in guidance (7, 11). There is just not enough time.

If the home-room guidance program has degenerated into attendance taking (1, 327), would it not be better to eliminate it entirely and re-apportion teaching time. As for taking attendance, surely there must be a more practical and less time consuming way to do that. Perhaps the first-period teacher could do that, or what is better, the third-period teacher. Take the home-room burden off the teachers and leave guidance to those who are qualified and/or interested in such activities.

Teachers who are "guidance minded" and/or trained in guidance and counseling could be released one or two periods each day to do an organized and effective job in guidance.

Each school should decide on the guidance services to be rendered and then provide the appropriate staff to provide such services (4, 171). If the teachers selected do not have adequate training in the area, an in-service training program could be initiated to make them the kind of guidance workers who will provide a much needed service for today's youth.

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The High School Home Room Program

BILL S. HENRIE

IT HAS been found upon surveying the guidance program at various high schools, that most areas have been functioning nicely. The phase that needs improvement and polishing is with respect to the home-room concept.

It appears that the teachers have not been too well informed as to the purposes, objectives, functions, activities, and organization of the home room. This has probably been due to the lack of training given by the teacher-training institutions, the omission of the full home-room program from the teacher's handbooks, and to the lack of new-teacher orientation by the school administrative staff.

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The home room is one of the earliest guidance tools established in the school organization. Its main purpose is to set up an ideal, intimate, democratic relationship between pupils and teachers in which curriculums, extracurricular activities, and the general guidance program can be coordinated more effectively.

There was a time when the pupil spent the entire day under the guidance and leadership of one teacher. At that time, the personal and intimate relationship between the pupil and the teacher was so close that the good teacher knew the pupil's problems, both personal and social. Today this situation exists only in the elementary grades. Why? Because the secondary schools have become so specialized and thus departmentalized that the teacher is primarily interested and trained in one basic subject matter field, and a few related fields, with the result that this close personal relationship has been dissolved. The home-room adviser program was instituted to offset this situation.

PURPOSE OF THE PROGRAM

Thus it is important that administrators and teachers have a clear understanding of the purpose of the home room in the secondary school if the home room is to function effectively. The purpose of the home-room guidance program is to provide the students with activities and experiences upon which they can presently, and in the future, make intelligent, worth-while choices and proper adjustments to school and life situations. It is not, therefore, geared to steering the students along a single pathway. Rather, it recognizes that there are various approaches to the solution of a problem and gives the students the opportunity to select the best courses of action for the achievement of their particular goals. The program is intended to help meet the needs which are common to all students, to bring about a greater understanding of their problems, and to aid them in becoming progressively more self-directed.

Some of the objectives of the home-room guidance program are: (1) to develop a healthy school spirit which will reduce the "lost" feeling which confronts most of the new students and will enable all students to become acquainted with the various functions and activities of the school and with the students and teachers; (2) to develop desirable civic, ethical, and social attitudes, and to provide opportunities for participation in school situations through assumption of responsibilities and the development of group loyalties; (3) to encourage and develop worthy and intelligent leadership in school activities and to develop tomorrow's community leaders; (4) to provide occupational information and to help students appreciate the vocational significance and values of group working relations through school activities; (5) to develop a good attitude or relationship between student and teacher; and (6) to handle routine school business efficiently, such as reading announcements, giving publicity to worthy programs and campaigns, distributing materials, sell-

ing tickets, and making provision for numerous other similar routine activities.

The guidance service assists the new students by providing a service of orientation. Orientation may be provided through the home-room program if the home room is not limited merely to serving as an administrative device for the calling of the roll and the reading of announcements. Home rooms of value in the orientation process are those in which the students have an opportunity to participate and to receive help on the problems which they feel warrant assistance. The home-room guidance period, therefore, should be oriented to the school philosophy and program and to the educational, vocational, recreational, social-civic, health, moral, and personal adjustment problems which confront most students.

One function the home-room program should provide is that of a transition spot in the school where guidance data and curricular experience can be integrated for a more effective student program. It is a means whereby student council and other student activities can be integrated into the lives of each individual student. The home room bridges the gap between the classroom and the guidance center. Each student must be free to bring his problems there and discuss them as if it were in his own home.

One method of fulfilling the functions and realizing the aims of the home room is to have the home-room period flexible. The students should have major responsibility for composing a discussion list and bring up any new topics in which they are interested in their own season. One less embarrassing and silent way of obtaining a discussion list would be to have each home-room member list on a card his problems or the topics and questions he would like discussed.

REASON FOR UNEFFECTIVENESS OF THE PROGRAM

It has been suggested by some guidance experts that the home room is not a very effective form of guidance organization. Some reasons given are: (1) Not every staff member can do effective counseling because he has had little training beyond his teacher certification requirements and has not become sufficiently conversant with the use of tests, records, interviews, occupational and educational information. (2) Some communities are unwilling to provide for improved guidance services, and the present staff must carry on this responsibility in addition to their already overloaded regular activities. (3) Some home-room guidance programs are put into effect by well-meaning administrators who have heard that all self-respecting schools should have one, but have forgotten that the staff must be informed of this, trained, and kept informed of new trends in guidance techniques. Teachers do not have time to do all that is expected of them where their regular teaching load is concerned, to say nothing about the additional effort required to set up and supervise an effective home-room guidance program.

Another of the downfalls of many a home-room program is the assigning of times and dates of topics to be discussed. One familiar complaint from the students is, "Do we have to study (or hear) that again? We had (or heard) that last year." It appears that it would be better to take the topic of discussion from actual life as the need arises from week to week or season to season. The topic of discussion should be entitled "First things first." For example, why should we discuss the topic of "How To Study" when a discussion of the unsportsmanlike conduct after the game the preceding night is by far the foremost thought in the student's mind at the present time.

Other reasons expressed for failure of the home-room guidance program is that the period is too short to accomplish anything significant, and that the home-room teacher does not know what the administration expects them to do or accomplish. This has been overcome in some of the larger school districts by a home-room guidance handbook distributed by the district administration.

DEVELOPING AN EFFECTIVE PROGRAM

In order to develop an effective home room, some of the ineffective aspects must be removed. More emphasis needs to be placed on the importance of the home room, more preparation on the part of both teacher and student, more understanding as to what is to be accomplished, more time allotted to carrying out these accomplishments, and more enthusiasm reflected by teachers in their home-room administrative duties. To obtain an effective home room, a teacher should receive some training for home-room responsibilities either in the teacher-training institution or by the school district itself. Not only do the teachers need orientation and preparation in home-room responsibilities, but also the students need to know the responsibilities and the opportunities which are theirs as home-room members.

There needs to be an outline of suitable home-room activities and projects with which the home-room sponsors and student program chairman can work. The activities of the home room should be well balanced to maintain student interest. Activities might include individual and group guidance, discussions of problems important to the home-room members, work on service projects, and instruction in school and civic matters not covered by the student's regular courses—in addition to routine clerical and administrative activities.

The success of any home-room organization is dependent primarily upon the teacher—his fitness, insight, and wholehearted support. A well-developed and organized guidance program is essential if the home room is to fulfill its major objectives. One of the most effective home-room systems is the one in which the home-room sponsor is the home-room adviser-counselor, teaching these home-room students in his particular subject matter field. With this type of situation, the teacher can then

become more interested and can adjust his program and spend more or less time on counseling or subject matter.

The home-room guidance program helps to further the primary aims of the secondary school; namely, developing the student's total personality and training him for responsible and effective citizenship. To accomplish this task, the home-room teacher must make every effort to understand his students. The teacher must study their interests, abilities, and needs, and the effect these have on their personalities and upon others in the group.

THE TEACHER'S PART IN THE PROGRAM

The home-room teacher must function well in all phases of guidance, for it is in this capacity that he comes to know each pupil in the room more intimately than any other teacher. He alone has the opportunity of knowing the pupil in all his relationships—his studies, his difficulties with teachers, his problems of discipline, his home conditions and environment, his associates in school and out, and his attitudes, interests, and abilities. Therefore, whether the school be large or small, it is with the home-room teacher that the foundations for guidance must be laid.

The home visit is usually the duty of the guidance director and should be spread over the entire school population and not to the problem children only. But this should not be accepted as a set policy. When a student has an extended illness, the home-room teacher should be the one to make the home visit. A letter or personal telephone call might be one way of making contact to show the home-room teacher's personal interest in the student. A social home visit to each of his home-room students may be the "turning" aid in helping them over some rough spots later on. The home visit is not as much a part of the classroom teacher's program as it is that of the home-room teacher's guidance program.

To a large measure, the effectiveness of any guidance program depends upon the performance of the teacher. The school, like the parents, must come to the realization that, in order to give the student a fair chance to achieve emotional maturity, both should avoid trying to live his life. They should show the student the ways, explain the destinations, and then let him choose and ponder in his own mind the road of life he wishes to travel. Be it rough or smooth, he should be allowed to learn how to make decisions and accept the results.

Most of today's teachers have grown up in the pre-home-room era, and to make home-room guidance work effectively, they must become informed. Otherwise, they will have a tendency to teach as they were taught.

In situations where the high school has a special guidance officer, the question frequently arises: "What guidance functions will be performed by the home-room teacher, and what functions will be reserved for persons trained in guidance work?" As a matter of convenience and usefulness, the guidance director and the home-room teacher should cooperate

in the development of a plan in which the home-room counselor gives some special assistance in certain phases of the vocational and educational counseling.

In order to keep up to date on the individual students, it is quite necessary for the teacher to have a card with pertinent information on it for each student for use in understanding his particular situation. Uses for such records include: helping students seek aid or giving aid when the student does not realize it is needed; aiding in choosing a vocation, avocation curriculum, part-time or summer work; and assisting in the selection of a college or vocational school. It should be kept in mind that this is personal information and should be regarded as such. No matter how complete the record may be, it must be kept up to date if it is to be of much value.

There are as many methods of grouping and combinations of grouping for home rooms as there are home rooms. One of the methods is to classify the students by ability. Sometimes this is undesirable from the parent's point of view in that their child has all the abilities someone else's child has. Another method is by alphabetical order; another, centers of interest; and another, school grade classifications (senior, junior, sophomore, and freshman). One of the methods that might be used and is usually enjoyed by the students is grouping by sex. This method may remove some reluctance to discuss problems where mixed audiences are involved. In this method, topics pertinent to the students can be discussed. For example, the girls could learn to care for children; the boys could discuss trades, *etc.*

One of the best methods of grouping that has been tried is the first-period home-room method. This is where the first class in the day is the home room. This hour appears to be one of the most favorable because the problems of discipline, lack of interest, class (grade in school), and special ability are not present. In this first-period home-room method, attendance is checked, announcements are read, and discussions and pertinent school business and policies are discussed. This period should be about ten minutes longer than the regular class period to take care of the administrative business. There is seldom the problem of students not having anything to do in this method of grouping because of the forthcoming assignments and lessons in the first subject matter period.

A method of covering topics that has worked quite well in many situations is to assign each grade, seven through twelve, a specific topic to be covered. For example, seventh-grade students can learn to respond to regulations, requirements, and discipline, thus becoming oriented to the school and good citizenship. Eighth-grade students can learn how to acquire good study habits and develop their use of the library and constructive use of leisure time. In the ninth-grade, a general survey of vocational fields could be undertaken. Tenth-grade pupils can learn proper grooming, personal responsibility toward school, self, parents, and country. Eleventh-grade pupils can deal with social and civic prob-

lems, as well as occupational selection. Twelfth-grade students can work with understanding and the need of accepting adult responsibilities, as well as selecting an occupation.

No matter how well a home-room program is functioning, another look at it could mean improvement and a better understanding of school, teacher, and student.

Guidance: A Coordinated Plan

J. ROBERT LONG

THERE probably is not a single senior high school in the United States that doesn't face the problem of having too few counselors for the tremendous task of providing the necessary guidance services for its pupils. Because of the lack of sufficient funds, the possibility of increasing the number of counselors and thus reducing the counseling load does not seem forthcoming in the near future for most of these schools. Any solution to the improvement of guidance services lies, then, in the reorganization of existing services so that the different resources of a school can be utilized to the maximum. It was with this idea in mind that a new organizational plan for guidance services was instituted at West Seattle High School in the fall of 1958.

In brief, the plan calls for the assignment of all the pupils of a specific grade level to one counselor for all types of counseling. It also calls for the assignment of all pupils of a specific grade level to permanent home rooms composed only of members of that grade level. This plan enables a counselor to work explicitly with approximately twenty home-room teachers and all members of a certain grade level in school for the three years these pupils are in senior high school. While it is still too early to determine the degree of success of the plan, it has been obvious to the staff of the school that the plan is far more efficient than the one formerly used at West Seattle High School.

The Seattle Public Schools provides three full-time counselors for a high school with fifteen hundred pupils and one additional counseling period for every one hundred pupils over fifteen hundred. At the time the new plan was initiated at West Seattle High School, there was a pupil population of over 1,800, which, under the former plan, provided

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the school with a boys' counselor, a girls' counselor, one full-time general counselor, and one part-time counselor with three periods for counseling. The former plan called for the boys' counselor, a man, to work with boys with adjustment problems, whether they were personal, social, vocational, or educational. The same arrangement existed for the girls' counselor, a woman, in working with the girls. The full-time general counselor worked with all pupils with programming and other academic problems. The part-time counselor handled the testing, scholarship, and college guidance programs. Under this plan, there was a considerable overlapping of counselees, since one pupil could be seen by as many as three of the four counselors, depending on the needs of that pupil. This happened frequently and created a communication problem, since it required three different counselors to make interview records for one pupil. The clerical problems of recording the interviews were burdensome, and the problem of locating the records of pupils became quite time-consuming. The records couldn't be kept in the counselors' offices, but had to be in a centralized location. Counselors didn't have access to pupils' records without leaving the office to go to the centralized files. Quite often counselors looked for the records of a pupil only to find that another counselor had the records. A lot of time was consumed looking for records. It became obvious that a different organizational plan was needed for the most efficient use of counseling time.

In addition to the need for a more efficient use of counseling time, there was also a need for the establishment of a strong system of home-room guidance. Because of sheer numbers, it was not possible for the counselors to assist all pupils with program planning. In most schools this responsibility rests with the home-room teachers. The system that was being used at West Seattle High School was not a true home-room plan where pupils could receive academic guidance throughout their high-school careers, but only a roll-room arrangement for the convenience of taking attendance, reading the daily bulletin, and handling other routine matters.

There was no separate home-room period; instead, the first period was twenty minutes longer than the other periods so that roll-room business could be conducted at the beginning of that period. Under this plan, most pupils changed roll-room teachers each semester because of changed program schedules. This meant that the four-year plan cards (records of what subjects pupils plan to take during high school, as well as records of grades received semester by semester) were not kept by one teacher, but by as many as eight different ones. This meant that the responsibility for any one pupil's program planning was shared by many teachers and thus was not always handled consistently. At the beginning of a new semester, each home-room teacher was confronted with a new group of roll-room members. It took time for the teacher to learn about the abilities and needs of each of the new members. Those pupils who had a first period study hall were "orphans" as far as the roll-room system was

concerned. As there were several hundred pupils in a study hall, there was little opportunity for the study hall teacher to get acquainted with each and every one. During registration time, these pupils were sent in groups of three or four to other roll rooms for help in program planning. The entire plan lacked continuity and proved to be a very ineffective way of providing home-room guidance.

PLANNING A NEW SYSTEM

The apparent need was for a new home-room system and for a new arrangement of assigning pupils to counselors. The first step was to bring the entire staff in on the planning of the new home-room system. The principal invited members of the staff to serve on a committee to assist in the planning. After many meetings and discussions, the staff adopted a plan that called for a fifteen-minute home-room period each day. The teachers favored homogeneous home rooms; that is, groups that would be all freshmen, all sophomores, all juniors, or all seniors.

Each pupil upon entering West Seattle would be assigned to such a group with a specific teacher, and he would remain with that group and that teacher throughout his high-school years. The home-room period would occupy the first fifteen minutes of each day and would be used for taking of attendance, reading the daily bulletin, reporting by representatives of various school organizations, and the handling of numerous other activities that occasionally receive attention in schools. There would be times when specific kinds of counseling would be done, such as in the area of choosing subjects for the ensuing semester. On such occasions, the home-room period could be lengthened. The number of home rooms on the tenth-, eleventh-, and twelfth-grade levels needed to be the same so that the teachers who had senior home rooms could be available for the incoming sophomores the next fall.

There would be thirteen new home rooms for those tenth-grade students coming to West Seattle from the junior high school. These, plus the seven groups that were in high school as freshmen, would make up the twenty sophomore home rooms. Thirteen of the twenty teachers who had the seniors the first year would have sophomore home rooms the next. The other seven would take freshmen home rooms. Increases in pupil population would be matched by increases in staff and new home rooms could be formed as needed. The freshmen and sophomore home rooms would be larger (over thirty), but each semester they would grow smaller because of the attrition that hits all high schools. Since the plan called for the same group of home-room pupils to be with the same home-room teacher throughout three or four years of high school, greater coordination would be possible for all aspects of home-room guidance.

The reorganization of counseling assignments was made at the same time as the change in the home-room plan. The first step was the same as for the home rooms, in that the counseling staff held several meetings to plan the best way to coordinate all guidance services. Since the home-

room plan was being revised to include twenty sophomore home rooms, and twenty junior home rooms, and twenty senior home rooms, it seemed logical that one counselor could be assigned to the twenty sophomore home rooms and continue with them through to graduation. Another counselor could be assigned to the juniors, and still another to the seniors. The counselor for the seniors would have them for only one year, then, the next year, he would take over the sophomores and be their counselor for three years. The part-time counselor could take the freshmen each year. Since this was a much smaller group than the others, this person also could continue to work with testing and scholarships, but could share these phases of guidance to a greater extent with the other counselors. The major change that would be made was that there would be no specific counselor to work just with boys and no specific counselor to work just with girls. Each counselor would be working with both boys and girls. Since the basic philosophy held by the counseling staff was that a counselor could work effectively with counselees regardless of sex, there was no hesitation in going ahead with the new plan.

Since the time of adoption of the new plan, the pupil population of West Seattle High School has increased to 2,000. Most of the increase has been with an additional overflow of freshmen from the junior high school. There has been a corresponding increase in faculty members, so that presently there are thirteen freshmen home rooms, an increase of six over the original plan. The increase in pupil population gave the school two more periods of counseling time, and thus promoted the part-time counselor to full-time. With the larger freshmen class, this additional time was definitely needed so that the freshman counselor could continue to do specialized work with tests and scholarships while handling a larger case load of freshmen.

With the realization that cases arise when it is better for a girl to see a woman counselor, or for a boy to see a man counselor, provisions were made to transfer such cases from one counselor to another. This has happened only four or five times since the inception of the new system, and has caused no difficulties.

In addition to the advantages already mentioned, there have been great improvements in the keeping of the counseling records. Each counselor now keeps in his own office all of the records for pupils assigned to him. This enables the counselor to have the records at his fingertips at any time they are needed.

CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, it can be stated that the new coordinated guidance plan at West Seattle has the following advantages:

1. The new home-room plan provides better continuity and efficiency of guidance services. The home-room teachers are able to do a better job of guidance for pupils who remain with them for three or four years.

2. The new home-room plan combined with the new system of counseling assignments offers maximum opportunity for each pupil to identify with a specific teacher and a specific counselor.

3. The homogeneous type of home room enables each counselor to work closely with twenty home-room teachers rather than with the entire staff of over seventy faculty members.

4. The records for pupils are more accessible and more usable when located in each counselor's office.

The disadvantages, if any, have not been apparent, since the entire staff has been enthusiastic over the new arrangement. A careful evaluation is contemplated for the end of the fourth year of the plan. By this time the freshmen and sophomores who started under the new system will have been graduated. Only then will it be possible to evaluate objectively the reorganization of our counseling and home-room guidance services.

A Junior High School Guidance Handbook

MRS. RUTH W. TODD

ANDREW P. HOWARD

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AS A SCHOOL progresses in its formation of plans for guidance services, it is necessary to put into concrete form many of the ideas and premises on which the program is based. In structuring a guidance program, one important aspect of the organizational process is the development of a definite, written outline which sets forth the philosophy and guiding policies that have been agreed upon. It is more beneficial if these statements are written so that all concerned may refer to them, and in order that incoming personnel can obtain an overview of the guidance program's functions and services. Bearing these thoughts in mind the principal and the faculty of the Booker T. Washington Junior High School decided to prepare a guidance handbook.

Mrs. Ruth W. Todd and Andrew P. Howard, Teachers, were Co-chairman of the Guidance Handbook Project; and Wayman R. F. Grant, Sr., is Principal of the Booker T. Washington Junior High School, 1961 Andrews Street, Mobile, Alabama. They express their appreciation to the International Paper Company through the Mobile Public School System for the assistance they have given in progressing our program. The guidance of Dr. Robert Bills and Dr. Herman L. Frick was greatly appreciated.

This handbook includes a progress report of the guidance program and its organizational structure. To improve the functional elements of our guidance services we have developed a chart to illustrate the responsibilities of all the guidance personnel. The diagramming of our guidance structure has been helpful in clarifying functions of various personnel.

The guidance handbook has been prepared for the purposes of evaluation, clarification, and continued study of the policies and practices of the Booker T. Washington Junior High School in its execution of a sound program in guidance activities.

In order that pupils could obtain the full benefits of our guidance program, we felt that the underlying philosophy must be thoroughly understood by teachers, pupils, and parents. To accomplish this goal, each service club, members of the student council, and individual students met in small groups with the guidance council. In these meetings our guidance philosophy, activities, and services were explained to students. Students asked questions, made suggestions, and offered criticism. This procedure was followed until every pupil in the school had the opportunity to meet with the guidance council. Each teacher devised a diagram which outlined the guidance program. These graphic illustrations were explained to students in the meeting. It is difficult to attain effective guidance services without community support and understanding. We realized the fact that a school cannot progress beyond the thinking of its patrons, and therefore we attempted to bring parents and pupils into the planning of the guidance program wherever this was possible. By having parent conferences, Parent-Teachers Association meetings, and home visits, we feel we have acquainted the parents of our students with our program. We held meetings with parents similar to the kind that pupils attended. We believe that parents understand our program because of the increased cooperation we are receiving.

Our guidance program actually began in the summer of 1954, when our principal, Dr. Grant, made a study of the communities served by the school. The results of this study were revealed in faculty meetings, and out of numerous in-service meetings evolved our present philosophy, methods of grouping, types of lesson plans, and activity program. In essence, a two fold philosophy was agreed upon: (1) we will educate the whole child, find him where he is, and move him forward as rapidly as his capacities permit; (2) the entire staff constitutes the guidance personnel with more emphasis being placed on the home-room teacher. The home-room teacher is regarded as the key person because of the closer relation to the individual pupil. Although these two statements are glibly rattled off by many, our staff over a period of four and a half years has diligently striven to make this a reality.

The fact that our school system does not yet provide trained personnel in the field of guidance may largely be responsible for the approach we took in developing our guidance program. Believing very strongly that every teacher is a guidance teacher, the principal and faculty have

voluntarily taken courses in guidance and teaching techniques on the junior high-school level. From this leadership, local in-service training of the school's staff has developed to the extent that each teacher on the faculty has acquired a degree of proficiency in good guidance practices and is thoroughly acquainted with the total program of the school. As we moved forward working in accord with the tenets set forth in our philosophy and striving to improve the guidance program for children, a prodigious amount of research was done by the faculty.

After five years of intensive planning and research, the principal and faculty decided it was necessary to make a progress report of our guidance program. This report was made in the form of a summary of our guidance activities and services. The progress report was carefully analyzed so that we could determine existing strengths and weaknesses.

The opening pages of our booklet contains a diagram of a guidance structure. This chart shows the relationship of various personnel working with the guidance program. Although the home-room teacher is considered the key in identifying particular needs and in carrying out guidance recommendations, task counselors are used for counseling services and for study and analysis of particular problems. A well-planned guidance program in a junior high school is of paramount importance. In order to have an effective guidance program, the help of many people in addition to task counselors is required.

Throughout the booklet are explanations of the preceeding used in implementing our philosophy and reaching the objectives of the guidance program. There is a detailed discussion of how we gathered and recorded essential information about each pupil, about our curriculum scheduling policies, and about our testing program which includes health, achievement, intelligent, and diagnostic tests. Accompanying the description of our guidance program are numerous charts illustrating the responsibilities of the guidance personnel and our services and activities.

Our guidance handbook (available at 50 cents each from the Booker T. Washington Junior High School) has been distributed throughout the United States. Copies have been sent to leading educators and guidance specialists. It has received wide acclaim from numerous persons on local, state, and national level.

Many favorable comments have been received from parents, members of the community, and educators. It is our conviction that the guidance handbook has done much to clarify the services of our guidance program. Since the guidance phase of education is comparatively new to many parents, detailed descriptions and explanations have accomplished much toward the services to students. We believe our public relations have been strengthened by this handbook for we have secured community endorsement. It has been beneficial in bringing the community closer to the school.

Certification Trends in Guidance

LEROY C. OLSEN
LYNTON M. PIATT

IN AN analysis of the requirements for certification of guidance workers in the individual states and territories, it was noted that a lack of reliable information exists. Most of the reference material available comes from government publications of the state and national education offices, from professional educational organizations, and from the yearly certification publications such as those published by Woellner and Wood (6, 7).

This article will attempt to point out the requirements that the states and territories believe are necessary in order for a person to be certified for a position in counseling and guidance in the public schools. It will also present the trend found in the areas of preparation required by collegiate training institutions in the United States and its territories.

Certification in guidance seems to be in such a state of flux that this article will reflect only the status at the present time, or more accurately the status as of the date of the most recent reference.

CERTIFICATION REQUIREMENTS

In the 1954 *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals* (3) certification requirements for school counselors were mandatory in twenty-one states, the District of Columbia, Hawaii, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands. In eight states it was optional. Fourteen states were developing plans for certification or were in the process of formulating or revising their plans at that time and anticipated changes in 1955. Nine states did not have any certification plans under way.

In the 1957 U.S. *Bulletin, Guidance Workers Certification Requirements* (1), it was noted that requirements for school counselors were mandatory in thirty-one states, an increase of ten over 1953. They were also mandatory in the District of Columbia, three territories, and optional in seven states. Thirteen states and Alaska did not have certification requirements and were not developing plans for certification.

The four states of Arizona, California, New Mexico, and South Carolina were anticipating changes in 1953 and made certificates mandatory in 1957. The states of Montana and Oklahoma made certification optional within this period. The six states of Georgia, Indiana, Minnesota, Missouri, Ohio, and Wyoming made changes from optional to mandatory during this period. While the four states of Colorado, Michigan, Nevada, and Oregon were considering initiation of certification in 1953, they had not done so by 1957.

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By 1959 many changes seem to have taken place, but conflicting information was encountered in the 1957 U.S. Bulletin (1) and Woellner and Wood's (6) certification policies publication of that same year.

In the 1957 U.S. Bulletin (1) the requirements for certification in guidance were listed for thirty-five states, the District of Columbia, Hawaii, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands. Woellner and Wood (6); however, in this same year and also two years later in the 1959-60 publication (7), these publications list certification requirements in only twenty-nine states and do not mention the District of Columbia or the territories.

With regard to the discrepancies noted above, the individual state requirements for guidance certification were either not mentioned or referred to only vaguely for the states of Idaho, Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Nebraska, Texas, and Wisconsin in Woellner and Wood (6). Those states mentioning specific guidance certification policies in the 1959-60 Woellner and Wood (7) publication, but not found in the 1957 U.S. Bulletin (1) were Montana and North Dakota. These two states inaugurated certification policies during those years.

By 1960 Crow and Crow (2) indicated that nine states still had not taken a stand regarding guidance certification. This total was four less, however, than the number that had indicated concern or mentioned planning in 1957. States and territories initiating new guidance certification during that period were Alaska, Nevada, North Dakota, and Virginia. The states without specific requirements according to Crow and Crow were Alabama, Colorado, Idaho, Michigan, Montana, Oregon, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Tennessee, and Washington. However, in the 1957 U.S. Bulletin (1) as well as the 1959-60 Woellner and Wood publication (7), it was noted that optional certification was included for Montana.

The states of Connecticut, Indiana, North Carolina, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, and Pennsylvania have had certification for guidance personnel since the early 1930's.

ADDITIONAL REQUIREMENTS FOR CERTIFICATION

The 1954 Bulletin (3) and the 1955 *Journal of the National Association of Deans of Women* (5) described other entry requirements in addition to course preparation. The counselor in most states was expected to have a teaching certificate, several years of teaching experience, and a designated period of work experience other than teaching before being certificated in guidance.

In 1953, twenty-nine states, the District of Columbia and three territories required a teaching certificate prior to guidance certification. Twenty-one of the thirty-three required the certificate prior to provisional certification.

In 1953, twenty-eight states, the District of Columbia and three territories required in addition to a teaching certificate, two or three years

of teaching experience. Twenty-one of these asked for experience prior to provisional certification. At the same time, a total of twenty-two states and territories required previous experience, other than teaching, prior to permanent certification. Nine states required it before provisional certification.

Academic courses required by twenty-nine states, the District of Columbia, and the territories for provisional or permanent certification in 1953 are summarized in Table 1.

TABLE 1—Courses Required by States and Territories for Provisional or Permanent Certification in 1953

Course Title	Number of States and Terr. Requiring Course	Percentage of States and Terr. Requiring Course
Counseling Techniques	33	100
Basic Guidance	32	97
Analysis of the Individual	31	94
Occupational and Educational Information	29	88
Organization and Administration of Guidance	28	85
Tests and Measurements	27	82
Supervised Practices in Guidance	21	64
Mental Hygiene	16	49
Human Growth and Development	16	49
Group Guidance	15	45

Crow and Crow (2) listed fifty states and the course areas in which a person was expected to specialize in order to meet the certification requirements in guidance. This information is summarized in Table 2.

TABLE 2—Course Areas of Specialization Expected by States for Certification in 1960

Course Title	Number of States Requiring	Per Cent	Number of States Optional	Per Cent
Counseling Techniques	38	76		
Occup. and Educ. Info.	37	74		
Anal. of the Individual	36	72	1	2
Basic Prin. and Pract. of Guid.	35	70	2	4
Org. and Admin. of Guid.	27	54	2	4
Tests and Measurements	22	44	5	10
Supervised Pract. in Guid.	11	22	7	14

In comparing the 1960 information with the 1953 requirements, it was noted that three states had added requirements for a course in "Basic Guidance," five states had added a course in "Analysis of the Individual," eight states had added a course in "Occupational Information" and five states had added a course in "Counseling Techniques."

Between 1957 and 1960, ten states had made certification in guidance a requirement. This would account for some of the increases in requirements indicated in Table 2. The information included in Tables 1 and 2 indicates the type of course background asked for by the states but not how many semester or quarter hours required in each area.

The 1959 U.S. Bulletin (4) listed curricular preparation similar to those courses referred to previously in Tables 1 and 2. For example, ninety-three per cent of the schools required a course in "Counseling Techniques" for a Masters Degree in guidance. Ninety-one per cent required a course in "Analysis of the Individual."

SUMMARY

The material presented in this report indicates that a definite increase in the concern for guidance certification has taken place in recent years. This concern is especially evident between the years of 1953 and 1960. During this seven-year period the state and territorial policies toward guidance certification changed considerably. In 1953, twenty-five had mandatory certification, eight had optional certification, and ten were planning changes. Ten were in the process of changing or incorporating certification requirements.

By 1957, thirty-four had mandatory certification, six had optional certification, and five were in the planning stage. Eight did not mention any guidance certification requirements.

By 1960, forty-one states, the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands had taken some action toward certifying guidance workers within their boundaries. Nine states still did not have specific certification requirements.

Most states have required and still require teaching experience and experience in some other vocation prior to certification. A trend between 1953 and 1960 was observed in course requirements for certification. The course "Occupational Information" showed the largest increase compared to other courses.

At the Masters Degree level, counseling courses were ranked first by most schools as a requirement for graduation. Courses in "Psychological Foundations" made up the greatest percentage of the average guidance student's hour load.

Discrepancies were noted regarding information in print on guidance certification. Some of the publications were behind in listing states that had guidance certification requirements and have had them for years.

In general, requirements within the states parallel, but fall behind, the course requirements necessary for graduation from college. College

requirements will probably influence future state requirements. In examining state policies, it was observed that the requirements of one state do not vary a great deal on an over-all basis from the next. More study is needed regarding the often criticized certification requirements.

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A Guidance Bookshelf

HERMAN J. PETERS

JAMES B. HECK

CONTINUED and expanded demand for guidance and counseling services is apparent both in educational and lay groups. The Congress of the United States recognized this demand by placing emphasis on guidance as one of the major areas of the 1958 National Defense Education Act. The Conant report makes repeated recommendations for organized guidance functions performed by competently prepared school counselors. National and educational associations are setting good standards which

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require well-trained school counselors in our schools. The North Central Association states that "Each member school shall provide organized guidance services for its pupils." University counselor-educators are aware of continued requests for counselors and/or aid in establishing effective guidance programs in nearby schools. Since professional staff awareness and support are essential to the development of such a program, a minimum professional list of guidance books will assist the busy educator in learning more about the guidance function in education. The list given below is representative of the many excellent books in the guidance field. It should also be remembered that the literature in allied disciplines offers significant and essential information to the guidance worker.

The selection of a book for this list was based upon its adequacy in covering one or more of the following main areas of guidance work: (1) guidance theory; (2) the guidance role of the classroom teacher; (3) the instructional program; (4) studying the student; (5) the informational service; (6) counseling; (7) placement; (8) the follow-up; (9) organizing and administering the guidance program; (10) counselor education; and (11) evaluation and research in the guidance area.

The Personnel and Guidance Journal has been included because it is the official publication of the American Personnel and Guidance Association. In addition to those listed there are two other sources of current information on guidance. One is a quarterly, *The School Counselor*. It is the official publication of the American School Counselors Association which is a division of APGA. The other is your state guidance newsletter that brings you up-to-date on guidance views, personalities, books, and materials. To receive this publication, contact your State Supervisor of Guidance Services.

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Guidance and Public Relations

JOHN G. PAPPAS

A NEW decade has presented new challenges to the area of guidance, as well as to the entire educational program. If the needs of students and of society are to be dealt with effectively in the future, the school must assume a leadership role in the development of better school-community relations. Based on the assumption that the world is becoming an increasingly complex place in which to live, cooperation and teamwork seem to have become imperative for continued survival and progress. We, as a nation, must begin to utilize our human resources to their fullest extent. Our citizens must understand and share the varied responsibilities that complement our democratic freedom.

Since cooperation requires a common point of view among those working together, guidance has a major function to perform in this process. A fundamental principle of guidance and of cooperation is the respect for the dignity and worth of each individual. It seems reasonable to conclude, therefore, that guidance and its services are in a strategic position to help coordinate the many forces which impinge on the daily lives of boys and girls.

The purpose of this article is twofold being (1) to recall for school counselors the importance of their profession with regard to school public relations; and (2) to provide some suggestions for creating a more desirable interpersonal atmosphere within each counselor's particular setting. Limitations do exist in some of these ideas when they are applied to specific situations. However, it is evident that many of these have produced gratifying results when carried out. Now is an excellent time for us to take a critical look at our guidance programs, evaluating their contribution to the improvement of human relations within the school and between the school and community.

SOME BASIC CONSIDERATIONS

Before discussing some of the ways by which guidance can be of assistance in improving school-community relations, it may be helpful to consider some basic notions about school public relations. First, the best and most enduring conveyers of good will for any school are its students. Regardless of the size of programs or the money appropriated for facilities, well-adjusted students who are continuously searching for greater self-direction are the final check on the adequacy of the school's efforts. It is in this area that guidance services can make their major contribu-

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tion. By helping students make wise decisions about their educational plans, vocational plans, and personal-social development, guidance can do a great deal in maintaining favorable relations with the citizens of tomorrow.

Secondly, counselors can be of assistance to teachers by sharing with them their experience. The relationship between teacher and counselor must be clearly defined with the purposes of the guidance program understood by the entire staff. By providing in-service training activities, serving as a referral source, and assisting in the gathering and use of informational materials, the counselor can point out to teachers the need for guidance. These services will lead to cooperative planning whereby both teachers and counselors can help students develop fully their interests and abilities.

Thirdly, the administration and board of education should always be informed of the activities of the guidance department. Participation in the discussions and decisions of the program helps the administrator become familiar with the principles and techniques of guidance. The counselor and administrator should work together toward establishing guidance services which are in harmony with the total educational program. The acceptance and leadership of guidance by the school administrator are vital to the success of the program.

Finally, the necessity of good parent relationships with the school must not be overlooked. Perhaps the one best way for providing for good working relations with parents is the parent-teacher-counselor conference. Face-to-face contacts cannot be replaced by other means of communication. Some supplementary suggestions include bulletins on school activities, building visitation programs, parent-student orientation programs, and any other methods which bring parents closer to the school.

THE SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY

Guidance can improve school-community relations. The process of helping students frequently includes contacts with a great number of persons and agencies. Thus as Nelson states, "Counselors have opportunities (1) to get community reactions and other information which can be used to make a school's program more responsive to local needs; and (2) to interpret the objectives and services of the school to the people which it serves."¹ Furthermore, guidance is convincing evidence to the community that a school is sincerely interested in the welfare of the individual student.

Although guidance for pupils is primarily the responsibility of the school, in a larger sense, this responsibility belongs to the community. The concept of education as a community challenge points to the need for cooperative planning. Community agencies should be invited to participate in program planning and development. An advisory com-

¹ A. G. Nelson, "The Role of Counseling in the Secondary School," *National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, Bulletin 38, No. 205, 1954, page 35.

mittee might have included in its membership representatives from major groups in the community. The school should utilize and coordinate services available through the appropriate community organizations, agencies, and individuals.

Principles are necessary for working with others if optimum results are to be realized. An accepting attitude on the part of guidance workers is of primary importance when they are enlisting the support of other community agencies. Closer contacts with employers can also be of much value in helping students find their places in the world of work. The emphasis is again on clearly defined principles of cooperation and the assumption that the school must take a leadership role in the community.

Guidance, being an integral part of the educational program and having a unique place in the organizational structure of the school, can and should become a significant influence in the development of better public relations within the school and between the school and community.

Pupil-Teacher Relationships—Of High School Seniors

HAROLD H. PUNKE

FOR most high-school students, teachers constitute the major school influence. The teacher-school influence is exerted through classroom and extracurricular activities, homework and library assignments, philanthropic activities in which schools participate, parent-teacher relationship, *etc.* Many pupil-teacher relationships are important in school programs. This article examines some of these relationships, as seen by 804 Alabama high-school seniors.¹

SEX DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS

The sex distribution of teachers may be important to students. Seniors of each sex report more teachers of their own sex than are reported by seniors of the opposite sex. Boys report approximately 1.7 times as many men teachers as girls, whereas girls report approximately 1.2 times as many women teachers as boys. Perhaps the uniformity in sex of teacher

¹ The data reported in this article constitute part of a larger study made in the spring of 1955, in which seniors in 22 high schools supplied information on anonymous questionnaires.

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and student in vocational agriculture and home economics largely accounts for the situation indicated. The small number of men in non-vocational and non-coaching fields reduces the opportunity of girls to have work with men teachers. No comparable factor reduces the opportunity of boys to have work with women teachers.

Few students thought their schools should have more women teachers, but roughly one third thought they should have more men teachers. For some time it has been felt that high-school boys need more men teachers; the fact that about one third of the girls too would like to have more men teachers may be more illuminating. Over half of the seniors reported the present sex ratio among teachers in their schools to be all right. This may mean that upon reflection they saw no reason why a different ratio would be important. Perhaps a good many seniors in this category had simply never questioned the *status quo*. A substantially larger percentage of girls than of boys were in this category.

GETTING ALONG WITH TEACHERS

Students were asked how well they get along with teachers. Most students (71.4% of 363 boys and 85.5% of 441 girls) report that they get along "very well" with their teachers—of course this might not be the teachers' view. However, students who do not get along well may be unlikely to survive to the senior year.

Twice as large a percentage of boys as of girls (26.7% of the boys and 13.1% of the girls) reported that they get along only "fair." Seven boys and two girls reported that they get along poorly with teachers. There may be some question as to whether these data mean that boys in general do not get along with teachers as well as girls do, or that boys are more frank in appraising their relationships with teachers. The fact that most teachers are women, and that in this study a larger percentage of boys than of girls thought they should have more men teachers, may be related to this point. The present study includes no data on course grades by sex of student. Some studies show that girls make higher grades in high school than boys. The grade situation could also relate to "getting along" with teachers.

HOMEWORK

Homework can be important in pupil-teacher relations at the high-school level. Several types of information concerning homework, in pupil-teacher-parent relationships, appear in Table I.

The table shows that, in various respects, boys have greater dislike for homework than girls. Section 2 of the table shows that boys think students should spend less time in homework than girls think appropriate. This is shown particularly in lines "c" and "e," but also to some extent in lines "a" and "b." Since high-school boys ordinarily have part-time jobs to a greater extent than girls have, and otherwise circulate somewhat more freely outside the home, boys might sense more than girls that

TABLE I. Homework Situation Reported by Seniors

<i>Type of Homework Information Supplied</i>	<i>Sex of Student</i>	
	<i>Boys</i>	<i>Girls</i>
1. Number of students reporting	363	441
2. Time per day that high-school students should spend on homework*		
a. None	1.9	0.0
b. Half-hour	2.5	0.9
c. Half-hour to one hour	24.8	17.2
d. One and one-half hours	43.0	42.4
e. Two hours or more	27.0	38.8
f. No data	0.8	0.7
g. Totals for percentages	100.0	100.0
3. How often do your teachers expect you to do homework*		
a. Frequently	86.5	86.2
b. Occasionally	11.3	13.6
c. Seldom	2.2	0.2
d. Totals for percentages	100.0	100.0
4. Should teachers expect parents to know enough about high-school subjects and programs to be able to help their sons and daughters with homework*		
a. Yes	30.9	34.9
b. No	52.0	43.8
c. Parents can't help much	12.1	17.9
d. No data	5.0	3.4
e. Totals for percentages	100.0	100.0
5. Would your parents have time to help you with homework*		
a. Frequently	17.4	20.0
b. Occasionally	39.4	48.7
c. Seldom	41.0	29.5
d. No data	2.2	1.8
e. Totals for percentages	100.0	100.0

* Data on these items are in percentages of the number of students reporting.

homework interferes with non-academic interests and activities. The only way in which sex of student is related to frequency with which teachers are reported as expecting students to do homework, section 3, appears in the categories "occasionally" and "seldom." Boys may not interpret the references made by teachers to homework quite as literally as girls do—or, if they spend less time at homework, their recollections may be less accurate. Possibly certain courses taken by girls average slightly higher in homework than courses taken mainly by boys.

Boys to a greater extent than girls think that teachers should not expect parents to know enough about high-school subjects and programs to be able to help their adolescent children with homework—lines "a" and "b"

of section 4. However, a smaller percentage of boys than of girls report that their parents are unable to help much. This may mean that a smaller percentage of the boys tried to secure the help of their parents often enough to be able to make as accurate estimates as girls make. If boys tend to ask their fathers and girls to ask their mothers for help, do the data suggest that mothers are less able to understand the present-day high-school programs of their daughters than fathers are of their sons? No data are included on the amounts of formal education secured by parents, as a possible factor in the relative competence of parents of the two sexes to help with homework. The fact that the socio-economic world of women is changing more rapidly than that of men, could be a factor.

Section 5 shows boys reporting that their parents have less time to help with homework than girls report. Boys may reflect the situation regarding fathers more than regarding mothers, with fathers having less interest in helping or less time free from their vocations during which to help. To some extent the reports by boys may be a rationalization of their dislike for homework—as reflected by other parts of Table I.

Assignments which teachers give students to work out in the school library may affect pupil-teacher relationships—although many other things bring students to the library.

No important sex difference appears concerning use of the school library. Over half (54.5% boys and 52.4% girls) of the students spend less than a half-hour per day in the library, and about nine per cent (8.3% boys and 9.1% girls) spend no more than one hour per day there. About one third (35.8% boys and 35.1% girls) spend one and one half hours per day. Several factors of course influence the amount of student time spent daily in the library, i.e., size of the library and usefulness of available materials, service and check-out practices, bus and class schedules, curriculum practices and teaching methods, the studious interests or tendencies of pupils. Regardless of the reasons, however, the 804 seniors apparently made little use of school libraries.

CHARITABLE DRIVES ON SCHOOL TIME

In some schools considerable student time and money is absorbed by charitable and similar drives within the school. Such drives can interfere with school work, or embarrass students in modest economic circumstances.

Between one fifth and one fourth of the seniors thought drives interfered with school work—three fourths thought they did not. Somewhat less than one fifth, for both sexes combined, had been embarrassed because they could not contribute as much as they thought others contributed. Somewhat more girls than boys felt embarrassment. This might mean that boys could earn more spending money and hence contribute more than girls, or it might mean that boys are less easily embarrassed about such matters. Since the data relate only to students who withstood

the economic impact of high school until the senior year, embarrassment for the reasons noted might be more common among students who drop out of school for economic reasons.

QUALITIES OF TEACHERS

Students were asked to think of the best teacher and of the poorest teacher they had ever had in high school, and to list the qualities which made the two teachers best and poorest respectively. Students had "free reign" in this part of the study. The data appear in Tables II and III.

TABLE II. Qualities Which Make the Best High-School Teachers, by Sex of Student Reporting

Qualities Designated*	Sex of Student and Rating of Teacher			
	Boys		Girls	
	Rank ¹ among qualities	Pct. who ² mentioned the quality	Rank ¹ among qualities	Pct. who ² mentioned the quality
1. Number of students reporting	—	363	—	441
2. Qualities of teachers:				
a. Good explanations; easily understood, interesting	1	28	2	30
b. Willing to help; extra effort with students who do not understand readily	2	24	1	31
c. Friendly; kind (some girls said sweet)	3	23	3	28
d. Is understanding about both academic and social problems of students	4	15	4	21
e. Knows his subject	5	12	7	10
f. Inspired students to work; "made us work, homework, etc., but we liked it"	6	10	9	8
g. No favorites	7	8	5	18
h. Maintains discipline	8	6	8	8
i. Is Interested: in students, school program, and general level of education	9	6	6	14
j. Considerate	10	4	10	8
k. Patient	11	4	11	6
l. Graded fairly	12	1	12	0.5

¹ Ranks are from most to least frequent mention; based on numbers rather than on percentage.

² Percentages are based on number of students reporting.

* The part of the information blank dealing with qualities of teachers was not structured. Students were asked to think of the best teacher they ever had in high school, and to state what made that person a good teacher. They were asked to do the same regarding the worst teacher they ever had (next table). The "quality categories" were then formulated from student responses. Since this table and the following one do not include the same number of "quality categories," data in the percentage columns are not directly comparable.

TABLE III. Qualities Which Make the Poorest High-School Teachers, by Sex of Student Reporting*

Qualities Designated	Sex of Student and Rating of Teacher			
	Boys		Girls	
	Rank among qualities	Pct. who mentioned the quality	Rank among qualities	Pct. who mentioned the quality
1. Number of students reporting	—	363	—	441
2. Qualities of teachers:				
a. Can't explain well; won't explain; talks of other things instead of explaining	1	23	1	24
b. Unpleasant personality; never smiles; always grouchy	2	15	2	17
c. Lacks interest	3	10	3	16
d. Does not maintain discipline	4	8	6	11
e. Has favorites	5.5	7	4	11
f. Quick temper; hot temper	5.5	7	5	11
g. Does not know his subject	7	6	8	7
h. Lacks understanding; doesn't know teenagers	8	6	9	6
i. Not willing to help students; won't make any extra effort	9	6	7	8
j. Gives too much homework	10	5	12.5	3
k. Never satisfied; expects too much	11	4	11	4
l. Sarcastic; ridicules students	12	3	12.5	3
m. Gives grades without reason	13	2	14	3
n. Too old	14	2	15	2
o. Lacks patience	15	2	10	5

* The footnotes on the preceding table apply to this table also.

In Table II, students of both sexes allocated the first four ranks to the same teacher qualities—for "best" teacher. Both sexes also allocated the last three ranks to the same qualities. Knowledge of subject matter and inspiring students to work were rated higher by boys than by girls, whereas interest in students and in general aspects of the school program were rated higher by girls. Numerical data not shown in the table indicate that items "a," "c," "e," and "f" combined were mentioned as qualities of the best teacher by 604 or about 75 per cent of the 804 students. Of course most students mentioned several qualities.

In Table III, students of both sexes allocated the first six ranks to the same teacher qualities—for "poorest" teacher. Close similarity between students of the two sexes also appears in the rankings given several items near the bottom of the table. Few students thought teachers were poor because they were sarcastic, unreasonable graders, or too old.

In considering Tables II and III together, no great sex difference appears at any point in the rankings assigned by students to particular teacher qualities. The two tables, considered together, show a rather

close interweaving of knowledge and ability to explain subject matter; interest, friendliness, and a pleasing personality; good discipline; and fairness—as qualities of good teachers. For some purposes a simplified picture might be drawn by grouping certain quality categories as listed in the two tables. Thus in Table II items “g” and “l,” “no favorites” and “graded fairly,” might be combined; so too might items “b” and “i,” willingness to help, interest in students, *etc.* Similar combinations could be made in Table III. However with more detail shown by the tables, there is more flexibility regarding combinations which a reader might make.

CONCLUDING OBSERVATIONS

Perhaps a few concluding observations are justified.

1. The study shows that students of both sexes desire more men teachers in high school. Many administrators agree that more men teachers would be desirable. This, of course, is no indication that there will be more men teachers. Parents, administrators, and others who are really concerned about these desires of adolescents, or the ways in which adolescent welfare might be affected by current sex ratios among teachers, will have to do more than lament, eulogize, and exhort—if conditions are to change. Sex may be a teacher qualification to consider, in other than vocational and coaching fields, along with such qualities as academic preparation, experience, *etc.* Considering sex as a qualifying factor in such fields as English or biology would probably conflict with most current interpretations of the idea of “equal pay for equal service”—unless the mere presence of a particular type of personality is in some instances considered a service to growing adolescents, as student counselors sometimes observe.

2. Consideration of how well students get along with teachers raises a question concerning the extent to which it should be the student’s responsibility to learn to get along with teachers. Much is said about the importance of teaching young people to make social adjustments. Perhaps more attention should be given to their accepting responsibility for doing so. This does not imply that a principal need make special effort to have a few cantankerous staff members to insure that students have an opportunity for practice in this respect, but it suggests that a school may go too far in emphasizing teacher responsibility in this connection.

3. Homework has long been a matter of school concern—and argument. Some high-school students are “cheated” out of educational opportunity by having no home work, which is under the general guidance and supervision of the school—much as others are “cheated” by excessive homework which crowds other important developmental experiences out of life, or expects one to do work at home which he has no time or facilities to do. Individual differences among students, concerning home backgrounds and circumstances, deserve more consideration in the homework connection than they usually receive.

4. Seniors included in this study report little use of the school library. This fact ought to be related to the theory that the library should be the focal point of the school's instructional program. In some instances, students who make little use of the school library have considerable instructional material in their classrooms. But this seems more likely to be the exception than the rule. Several possible factors relating to the extent of student use of the school library were previously suggested. Without regard to the reasons, the limited use made of the library, as reported by the 804 seniors, will not do much to develop a habit of using libraries in adult life, or acquaint students with how to use a library in college study. With an increasing percentage of high-school graduates entering college, teaching how to use a library becomes a more important high-school responsibility.

5. Drives can become a nuisance in any secondary school. The school staff and the public should recognize that the school is not a collecting agency for philanthropic groups and "good causes"—regardless of how easy it might be to extract small individual contributions from a captive adolescent audience. Collections for school enterprises and activities may seem more in line with the school's educational function, but most of these should be recognized as disguised tuition—in our "free" public education. The fact that school carnivals and similar enterprises might absorb the "spending money" of pupils through wholesome school-supervised entertainment, in contrast with commercial recreation, often complicates the principal's task regarding what to approve. More administrative statesmanship and courage are often needed in situations concerning school drives.

6. The qualities which make good teachers are important to students and parents. It is of interest that, in the thinking of the 804 seniors studied, a teacher's understanding and getting along with students may be more closely related to his ability to explain subject matter and maintain discipline than has been implied by some writers on guidance or on education for social adjustment. However, on this point as on others, the students who have survived to the latter part of the senior year are not a cross-section of the high-school population.

The Legal Status of Married High School Students¹

L. GILBERT CARROLL

THE marriage of high-school students has given rise to many problems for which school administrators and boards of education must find solutions. Doubtless school authorities may legally take reasonable action to discourage the marriage of high-school students. What action will be held reasonable is a question upon which there is little legal precedent despite the increasing number of such marriages. In some schools married students are denied the right to participate in school activities outside their regular classwork. The question of the right of married pregnant students to participate in commencement exercises has arisen in other schools. There are schools in which married students are not allowed to attend school. Some school officials require married couples (husbands and wives) who remain in school to attend separate high schools.

In instances such as those referred to above, the local school boards are using their discretionary authority and judgment in an attempt to do what is best for all persons concerned. Yet, it is doubtful that the courts would enforce all of their regulations. There are many questions concerning the problem of married students, but very little litigation has reached the higher courts. There are at least two possible explanations for the lack of litigation. First, most students marry beyond the legal age of compulsory school attendance; and second, many school officials do not press to keep married students in school.

There are three fundamental legal questions which must be decided by the local school boards, and in instances of litigation, by the courts, regarding the problem. The questions are:

1. Is it legal for a school board, under a compulsory school attendance law, to require a minor who has married before reaching the age when he or she may legally withdraw from school to continue in school?
2. Is it legal for a school board to refuse admission to one who has married before completing his or her public school education?
3. Is it legal for a school board, once a married student has been admitted to school, to make certain regulations which restrict his or her activities during the period in which he or she is enrolled in school?

¹ L. Gilbert Carroll, "The Status of Married Students in the North Carolina Public High Schools," (unpublished Ed. D. dissertation, Department of Education, Duke University, 1960), 218 pp.

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COMPULSORY SCHOOL ATTENDANCE

The first question appears to be of little concern when the litigation which has evolved is considered. There have been only two Supreme Court cases which pertained to a requirement that married minor persons must attend school.

The first of the two cases was that of *State of Louisiana v. Priest*.² The facts of this case are that Louise Davis Priest, aged fifteen, was married to Sam Priest on November 14, 1945. On November 28, 1945, the Juvenile Court set aside a judgment committing the married girl to the State Industrial School for an indefinite period. She was committed on the charge of juvenile delinquency by being truant from school and for continual truancy. The married couple applied for a writ of *certiorari*. The truancy charge was not denied by Louise Priest, but she held that the Juvenile Court was without jurisdiction to charge her with violation of the compulsory school attendance regulation on the grounds that she was legally married and that she was emancipated by this marriage.

The Juvenile Court Judge over-ruled the exception to the jurisdiction and the motion to annul, holding that the compulsory school attendance law, which provided that "... every parent, guardian, or other person ... having control or charge of any child ... shall send such child to ... school," applied to minors up to their sixteenth birthday and that the fact of marriage afforded no exemption therefrom. The Judge also noted that the acts which set up the Juvenile Court's jurisdiction for the parishes involved, did not except, from the jurisdiction of the Juvenile Courts, a child who had become emancipated by marriage.

The case was then appealed to the Supreme Court. The Supreme Court, in reversing the decision of the Juvenile Court, said:

The marriage relationship, regardless of the age of the persons involved, creates conditions and imposes obligations upon the parties that are obviously inconsistent with compulsory school attendance laws or with either the husband or wife remaining under the legal control of parents or other persons. Though young, the husband is none the less required to support his wife and family. The wife, in the event that there should be a child in the family, could hardly be expected to attend school during the weeks preceding or following its birth.³

With regard to the emancipation of the minor as a result of the marriage, the court held that the husband is the head of the partnership formed between him and his wife, but that he does not have control or charge over his wife in the manner formerly exercised by the minor's parents. Since the married girl was not considered a child in the sense that she was no longer under the care and control of a parent, guardian, or other person, the compulsory school attendance law was no longer applicable.

² *State of Louisiana v. Priest*, 27 So. (2d) 173, 210 La. 389 (1946).

³ *Ibid.*

Thus the judgment of the Juvenile Court was annulled, and proceedings against the young married girl were dismissed.

This court decision established the legal principle that married minors who are still within the compulsory school attendance age are not subject to compulsory school attendance laws.

The second case concerning the compelling of married students to attend school was that of *In re State in Interest of Goodwin*.⁴ In this case, a fourteen year-old married girl was not required by the Louisiana Supreme Court to attend school under the authority of the legal principle heretofore established in the Priest case.

The answer to the first question is "No." A local school board cannot legally require a minor, who has married before reaching the age when he or she may legally withdraw from school, to continue in school. A married student is not considered a child under parental control due to emancipation resulting from marriage. Since the compulsory school attendance law requires of parents that they send their children to school, it is not applicable to a married boy or girl though he or she may be only fourteen or fifteen years old.

EXCLUSION FROM SCHOOL

The second question is one which is probably of greater concern and significance to school officials than the first question.

Although exclusion from school, on the grounds that marriage disqualifies a boy or girl from school, is quite common, it rarely is a subject of litigation. There have been only three Supreme Court cases regarding this aspect of the married student problem.

The first of the three cases was that of *McLeod v. State of Mississippi*.⁵ In this case, writ of *mandamus* proceedings were begun by the plaintiff to compel the board of trustees of the public schools of Moss Point to admit, to the local high school, one Wanda Dodge Myers, a married student fifteen years of age. Although Wanda was married, she was eligible in all other respects to attend the school. Her application to do so was refused when it was discovered that she was married. Previous to this occasion, the school trustees had adopted an ordinance barring married persons from attending the public schools.

The question before the court at this time was to determine the validity of the ordinance under which she was denied admission, and whether or not it was so "unreasonable and unjust as to amount to an abuse of the discretionary powers of the board in the adoption of such an ordinance." The lower court, the Circuit Court of Jackson County, had declared it unreasonable and unjust. An appeal was made by the school board to the Supreme Court.

⁴ *In re State in Interest of Goodwin*, 39 So (2d), 731, 214 La. 1062 (1949).

⁵ *McLeod v. State of Mississippi*, ex rel Miles, 122 So. 737, 154 Miss. 468 (1929).

In upholding the Circuit Court's decision, the Supreme Court said:

Marriage is a domestic relation highly favored by law. When the relation is entered into with correct motives, the effect on the husband and wife is refining and elevating, rather than demoralizing. Pupils associating with a child occupying such a relation, it seems, would be benefited instead of harmed. And, furthermore, it is commendable in married persons of school age to desire to further pursue their education, and thereby become better fitted for the duties of life. And they are as much subject to the rules of the school as unmarried pupils, and punishable to the same extent for a breach of such rules. We are of the opinion that the ordinance in question is arbitrary and unreasonable, and therefore void.⁶

Thus the regulation was declared void, and Wanda Dodge Myers, as a result, was permitted to attend the public high school. This court decision established the legal principle that married students cannot legally be excluded from the public schools permanently on the basis of marriage alone.

The second of the three cases regarding this aspect of the problem was the one in which the Supreme Court of Kansas was also faced with the problem of determining whether or not a married student could attend a public high school. This was the *Nutt v. Board of Education of City of Goodland* case.⁷ This case was decided in the same manner as the McLeod case in that the married girl in question could not be legally barred from the public schools permanently on the basis of being married.

A third case, and the most recent one regarding the suspension of married students, was that of *State v. Marion County Board of Education*.⁸ This case was decided by the Supreme Court of Tennessee in May 1957.

As in the two preceding cases, admission to the public high school was being sought by a young married girl. This case differs from the others, however, in that the suspension from school of the married girl was only a temporary suspension; whereas, the suspension was a permanent one in the two preceding cases. A lower court had ruled in favor of the school board resolution which stated that "... students marrying during the school term should be expelled for the remainder of the term, and that students marrying during the vacation period should not be allowed to attend the term next succeeding." In doing so, it stated that "the rule imposed was neither arbitrary nor unreasonable under the facts disclosed by this record." Then the plaintiff appealed the case to the Supreme Court.

In sustaining the resolution of the board and the right of the board to make such a resolution, the Supreme Court said:

⁶ *Ibid.*

⁷ *Nutt v. Board of Education of City of Goodland*, 278 P. 1065, 128 Kan. 507 (1929).

⁸ *State v. Marion County Board of Education*, 302 S.W. (2d) 57 Tenn. (1957).

Any activity of students which can be said to have a reasonable bearing on his or her influence upon the students of a school is within the bounds of reasonable regulation by the board in the exercise of statutory duty vested in it to suspend pupils when the progress or efficiency of the school make it necessary.⁹

In continuing its opinion that the board was within its powers granted to make such a resolution, the court held:

That we are accustomed to accept the testimony of experts in the various fields of human activity as to what is reasonably necessary for the welfare of the particular activity as to which this expert therein is testifying. No reason is suggested as to why this practice should not be followed when the witness is an expert in the field of operating public high schools. Certainly the principals of the high schools should be regarded by reason of training, experience, and observation as possessing particular knowledge as to the problem which, they say, is made by marriage and uninterrupted attendance of married students in their respective schools.

With regard to the use of discretionary powers which are granted to the school boards in making regulations for the good of the schools, the court made a very significant statement;

Boards of education, rather than courts, are charged with the important and difficult duty of operating the public schools. So, it is not a question of whether this or that individual judge or court considers a given regulation adopted by the board as expedient. The court's duty, regardless of its personal views, is to uphold the board's regulation unless it is generally viewed as being arbitrary and unreasonable. Any other policy would result in confusion detrimental to the progress and efficiency of our public school system.¹⁰

In this court decision may be seen the legal principle that a school board can legally refuse admission temporarily to married students if the refusal is necessary to the efficiency and welfare of the school.

The effect of this decision on forthcoming litigation remains to be seen. However, it appears that boards of education do have the right to refuse admission to students who marry insofar as it is only a temporary refusal and if resolutions to that effect have been formulated in advance.

The answer to the second question is "No" in one respect and "Yes" in another. It is "No" in that a local school board cannot legally refuse school admission permanently, on the basis of marriage alone, to one who has married before completing his or her public school education. A regulation which refuses school admission to married students permanently will not be held to be reasonable by the courts. Married students are to be treated the same as the students who are not married insofar as the right to attend the public schools is concerned.

The answer to the question is "Yes" in that a local school board can legally refuse school admission to a married student insofar as the refusal

⁹ *Ibid.*

¹⁰ *Ibid.*

is only a temporary one. The temporary refusal, however, must be necessary to the efficiency and progress of the school. If not, then such action will also be found to be unreasonable by the courts.

RESTRICTIONS AFTER ADMISSION

The last question is one about which only one instance of litigation involving married students has been found in the reports of the higher courts. This was the *Kissick v. Garland Independent School District* case.¹¹

The Kissick case was decided by the Supreme Court of Texas early in 1960. This case concerns a married student in Garland High School who was denied the privilege of playing on the school football team because of the fact that he was married.

The suit was brought by the appellant, Jerry Kissick, individually and as next friend of Jerry Kissick, Jr., a minor, against the appellees, the Garland Independent School District and the School Board of the Garland Independent School District, to enjoin the appellees from enforcing a resolution which was passed by the Garland Independent School Board on August 24, 1959. The resolution reads as follows:

Married students or previously married students be restricted wholly to classroom work; that they be barred from participating in athletics or other exhibitions, and that they not be permitted to hold class offices or other positions of honor. Academic honor such as valedictorian and salutatorian are excepted.

This resolution was being enforced by the appellees. It prevented Jerry Kissick, Jr., from participating in the sport of football and from indulging in any of the other activities of the school except attending class.

One point of argument of the appellants was that the resolution was prospective in nature and did not apply to Jerry Kissick, Jr., since he was married prior to the passage of the resolution. Jerry was married on March 12, 1959, and the resolution was passed by the school board on August 24, 1959.

The lower court upheld the school board resolution. On appeal the Supreme Court of Texas affirmed the judgment of the trial court.

This case, at this point, has established the legal principle that local school boards can legally make rules and regulations which restrict the activities of married students during the period in which they are enrolled in the public schools. It is doubtful, however, that such a regulation as the one in this case will be held to be reasonable, in all instances, by the higher courts.

The answer to the third question is "Yes." A local school board can legally make regulations which restrict the activities of married students during the period in which they are enrolled in the schools. These rules, however, must be reasonable, and they must be necessary to the efficiency, progress, and welfare of the school.

¹¹ *Kissick v. Garland Independent School District*, 330 S.W. (2d), 708 (1960).

The responsibility of operating a local school system is in the hands of a local school board. It may be argued that restricting the activities of married students is necessary to the good management and government of the schools in some instances. In other instances, it may be contended that such regulations are not necessary. In the latter instance, the school board regulation may not stand the test of reasonableness; whereas, in the first instance, it may. "A board regulation is not reasonable or unreasonable *per se*; its reasonableness is determined by the circumstances of each particular case."¹² A regulation which is reasonable in one situation may be unreasonable in another. For example, a rule may be reasonable when applied to a married girl of fourteen and unreasonable when applied to a married boy of eighteen.

¹² Newton Edwards, *The Courts and the Public Schools*, rev. ed., Chicago, Ill: The University of Chicago Press. 1955. P. 564.

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Scholastic Achievements of Married and Unmarried High School Students

MRS. KATE B. GARNER
IRWIN V. SPERRY

THE decrease in the median age at first marriage¹ in the United States in recent years has resulted in increased numbers of high-school-aged persons who are married. In 1954, 4 per cent of boys and 4.8 per cent of girls ages fourteen to seventeen years of age in the United States were married.² At the same time, social and economic pressure is exerted on young people to graduate; consequently, many married students are now enrolled in high schools. Indications are that about three per cent of the students in the nation's senior high schools at present are married, the larger majority of those being girls who are married to older, out-of-school men; and sociologists are predicting that a trend toward increased enrollment can be expected. The problem of early marriage is not new, but the circumstances involving the high school are somewhat different from any previously dealt with.

THE PROBLEM

There are many criticisms of the negative influences of married students, based primarily on opinions and individual experiences. To date, it is not known definitely whether these criticisms are justified. An effort was made in this study to make a more accurate comparison of the scholastic achievements of married students with the scholastic achievements of unmarried students as to: (1) attendance, (2) subject grades, (3) achievement test scores, (4) conduct grades, and (5) subject choices. The results seem more important in indicating areas where change in school organization is needed than in supporting or dispelling criticisms of married students.

LITERATURE

The literature located indicated that very little research has been conducted with married high-school students, and none was found which

¹ Bureau of the Census, "Marital Status and Family Status, March 1950," *Current Population Reports*, Series P-20, 72:3, December 21, 1956.

² Bureau of the Census, "Marital Status and Family Status, April 1954," *Current Population Reports*, Series P-20, 56:6, March 18, 1955.

³ Lester A. Kirkendall, "Now It's Marriage in the High Schools," *Oregon Education Journal*, 26:8, 30, September 1951.

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provided statistical comparisons of the scholastic achievements of married and unmarried students. Kirkendall³ did what he termed a "casual survey" in 1951, using twenty-seven schools, to determine the incidence of student marriage in Oregon. Ivins⁴ reported at length on his study of student marriages in secondary schools of New Mexico. This was revealed by questionnaires returned by principals representing over half of the public schools of that state concerning incidence, policies, and special problems of married students plus an account of related research on legal aspects of the problem. Landis⁵ compiled data from questionnaires returned by 286 principals of high schools in California regarding incidence, attitudes, problems, and policies involving married students. Cavan and Beling⁶ conducted a survey of high schools in cities of over ten thousand population in Illinois for information on incidence, policies, and problems related to student marriages. Generally, these surveys indicated that most high schools had married students enrolled, but that the majority lacked definite policies for dealing with those students who married. Negative attitudes of administrators were indicated more often than positive approaches to helping the married students adjust to their new roles. The majority of administrators appeared to consider married students as problems which could most easily be handled by their elimination from the schools, but a few principals did consider married students more mature and an asset to school situations.

Matched pairs of married and unmarried girls have been compared in two studies. In Nebraska, Moss and Gingles⁷ compared personality factors of a sample of matched pairs of girls who married early and unmarried girls. A ten-year longitudinal study is planned to assess the success and dynamics of early marriage with those occurring later. Burchinal⁸ made comparisons for sociological and psychological variables between sixty matched pairs of married and unmarried high-school girls in Iowa. The married girls were divided into two sub-groups, the premaritally pregnant and the premaritally non-pregnant.

THE SITUATION

With the exception of a small demonstration school, Greensboro Senior High School was the only senior high school for white students in a

³ Wilson H. Ivins, *Student Marriages in New Mexico Secondary Schools*, Albuquerque: The University of New Mexico Press, 1954. 84 pp.

⁴ Judson T. Landis, "Attitudes and Policies Concerning Marriages Among High School Students," *Marriage and Family Living*, 18: 126-136, May 1956.

⁵ Ruth Shonle Cavan and Grace Beling, "A Study of High School Marriages," *Marriage and Family Living*, 20: 293-295, August 1958.

⁶ J. Joel Moss and Ruby Gingles, "The Relationship of Personality to the Incidence of Early Marriage," *Marriage and Family Living*, 21: 373-377, November 1959.

⁷ Lee G. Burchinal, "Adolescent Role Deprivation and High School Age Marriage," *Marriage and Family Living*, 21: 378-388, November 1959.

city of approximately one hundred and twenty thousand people at the time this study was conducted. Almost two thousand students were enrolled during the school year 1957-1958, thirty-seven of whom admitted or were known to be married on June 2, 1958. That number did not include any who were married and transferred or dropped out of school earlier in the year. The length of time each student had been married was not considered in this study.

No written statement of school policy had been made, but the school board had allowed married students to remain in school on the same conditions as unmarried students. When they married, students were not required to notify the school office of their change in marital status, nor was any effort made to provide any kind of record of married students. As far as the official practice of the school was concerned, no student had in any way been penalized for being married.

REPORT OF A STUDY

Home-room teachers secured the names of thirty-seven married students. Of those, ten were eliminated from this study because of incomplete records. Each of the remaining twenty-seven married students was matched by an unmarried student according to the following criteria: class (same year in school), age (within three months, more or less) sex, and intelligence quotient (within five points, more or less).

TECHNIQUES

All data for comparisons were concrete and were taken from permanent high-school records. Attendance was compared in percentages based on the number of days enrolled in regular sessions in school. Subject and conduct grades were converted from letters to numerical values using the evaluations employed at the school from which the sample came. The composite scores were used in comparing achievement test scores. Subject choices were less definite, and it was necessary to use weighted values of one and a half for major subjects and one for minor subjects. (Major subjects were those requiring homework and minor subjects were those not requiring homework as art, shop, music, and others).

ANALYSIS

In each of the five areas of scholastic achievements compared in this study, the hypothesis was that no true or significant difference existed between the two matched samples being compared. In order to compare the results statistically, the *t*-test for small related samples was used to calculate the significance of difference between the means of performance levels of the two groups of matched pairs. Means computed for this analysis are provided in Table I.

TABLE I. Means of Attendance Percentages, Subject Grades, Achievement Test Scores, Conduct Grades, and Weighted Subject Choices for Married and Unmarried Students

	Mean Attendance Percentages*	Mean Subject Grades*	Mean Achievement Test Scores**	Mean Conduct Grades*	Mean Weighted Subject Choices*	
					Majors	Minors
Married Students	93.0	82.1	53.4	96.6	19.6	1.7
Unmarried Students	96.8	85.2	60.7	96.6	21.4	2.5

* N = 27

** N = 24

A study of the data obtained is summarized here.

1. *Attendance.* A difference between the means of the two samples of matched pairs was very significant well beyond the one per cent level of confidence. The null hypothesis, which declares that no true difference exists, was not accepted since the unmarried students had attendance records which were significantly better than those of the married group. There were several possible reasons why married students had poorer attendance such as educational goals not as high, less emphasis on importance of regular attendance, increased home responsibilities, interference from employment, and sickness due to pregnancy. Because no distinction was made between attendance before and after marriage, it cannot safely be assumed that marriage was the only factor contributing to the poorer record. It appears that there is a need for further investigation into the causes of absences and that an effort be made to determine if there is a correlation between marital status and poorer attendance.

2. *Subject grades.* The two groups differed to a lesser but still significant degree (5 per cent level of confidence) with regard to subject grades. The unmarried group had maintained a three-point higher mean than the married students, a difference statistically great enough that the null hypothesis was not supported. Because the pairs had been matched on intelligence quotients, this could not be attributed to a basic difference in ability. Perhaps there was a difference in ambition or interests between the groups. Again, it appears there is a need for further study to determine the causes of the differences.

3. *Achievement test scores.* There was a significant difference in performance in achievement as measured by composite scores on the *Iowa Tests of Educational Development*. The difference was in favor of the unmarried group at slightly less than the five per cent but greater than the ten per cent level of confidence. Although less significant than

attendance percentages and subject-grade differences, it could be stated with a reasonable degree of confidence that the difference was too great to occur by chance and that the unmarried students had significantly better achievement test scores than the married students.

4. *Conduct grades.* A difference so slight as to be nonsignificant was found between the conduct grades of the two samples in this study. Either teachers had failed to make distinctions between varying degrees of conduct or many of the criticisms concerning behavior of married students could not be ascribed to this particular group. If there was a difference in maturity as often alleged by critics, it was not revealed in the conduct grades.

5. *Subject choices.* Unmarried students made more extensive subject choices than married students both in total number of subjects and in the proportion of major subjects to minor subjects. A significant difference beyond the one per cent level of confidence was found, thus the null hypothesis was not accepted. Educational goals, with most married students aiming no further than high-school graduation, might possibly explain the difference in subject choices.

6. *Conclusions.* Are these differences between the two samples great enough to conclude that students who remain unmarried in high school make better scholastic achievements than students who marry and continue in school? The answer is evidently affirmative under the limited conditions of the present study. Another question of importance might be: Do these differences indicate needs for changes in school programs? The answer is less definite and may depend partially on whether attention is focused on the married or the unmarried students. Practically all the research has been based on opinion questionnaires, the advantage of this study being that it used actual performance records. More careful consideration of this and additional research appears to be needed before that question can be answered adequately.

Limitations. The investigators recognize the following limitations of this study:

1. Reports of the students who were married, as made by home-room teachers, may not have been complete.

2. Ten students who were reported as married did not have complete records and could not be used in the sample, a number which could have been great enough to alter the findings for the entire group.

3. The sample did not include all students who were married during the year but only those still in school on a specific date, with the possibility of different results had another date been selected.

4. Summer-school attendance was not used because both members of matched pairs would not have attended summer sessions in most cases; attendance in summer sessions might have affected performance in some cases.

5. Failing grades of F were assigned a fixed numerical value of 60.0 although in most cases it was probably either higher or lower.

6. No distinction was made as to the time of marriage either in regard to total length of marriage or students' class in school at the time of marriage, which may have influenced the achievements compared in this study.

7. There was no consideration of differences in emotional maturity between individuals in either sample.

In attempting to draw any general conclusions, the investigators recognized the limitation of the sample itself. Because an urban senior high school of larger enrollment than most schools in the state was the locale of this study and because the data were secured at a particular time, conclusions cannot be applied to married students in general nor to any specific situations.

SUMMARY

In this study, unmarried students were found to make greater achievements in four of the five areas compared than the married students. For attendance and subject choices, the differences were most highly significant beyond the one per cent level of confidence followed in order by subject grades differences significant beyond the five per cent level of confidence and achievement test scores almost significant at the five per cent level of confidence. Any existing difference in conduct grades was so small as to be nonsignificant and could be attributed to sampling errors.

The Diagnosis of Achievement Deficiency

R. P. KROPP

EDUCATIONAL counselors are called on frequently to work with students who are referred by class room teachers owing to the apparently deficient achievements of such students. It is assumed that referrals of this kind are made because the educational counselor has a particular set of skills that enables him to unearth causes of achievement deficiency. It is the purpose here to comment on the procedures used in educational diagnosis and the effectiveness that results from their use.

When a student is referred for lack of achievement, the counselor certainly wishes to ascertain with some definiteness whether the student is actually failing to achieve according to his ability or not. Undoubtedly, he will refer to previous measures of the student's intelligence and it is likely

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that he will administer another test of mental ability to corroborate information that he already has in hand. On the basis of measured ability, a judgment will be made with regard to whether the achievement of the student is in keeping with the appraised level of ability. Despite the frequency and ease with which decisions of this kind are made, making such a decision is utterly complicated for a number of reasons, some of which are mentioned briefly below.

First, one must make the assumption that over a group of students the level of their achievement is directly related to the level of their measured mental ability. Generally, such a relationship exists although not with the strength that we attribute to it; furthermore, for achievement in particular courses, the relationship might be absent entirely or so weak as not to be useful either because the apprehension of the content is not dependent on the abilities included in measures of mental ability, or because the criterion by which achievement is evaluated might underplay or disregard the intellectual aspects of the content.

Second, since reading ability is highly related to success in most school courses and since it is also highly related to success on most group tests of intelligence, there is the ever present possibility that in a particular case that achievement will appear to be congruent with intelligence, thus not indicating under-achievement, when in fact both are depressed substantially due to poor reading ability.

Third, since under-achievement is in one sense a statistical artifact—i.e., an under-achiever might be defined as one whose actual achievement falls more than two standard errors of estimate less than his predicted achievement—there is the possibility that a given case of under-achievement can be serious or trivial depending on the magnitude of the standard error of estimate. These three considerations are mentioned merely to demonstrate that the act of classifying a student as being deficient in achievement cannot properly be reduced to a cookbook procedure.

Despite the factors which make complicated the process of classifying one as an under-achiever, it is a relatively straight-forward process as practiced by many counselors. If the achievement is congruent with measured intelligence, then all is well even though it might be regrettable. If achievement is actually higher than predicted achievement from measured intelligence, then an interesting impasse is reached which will not be discussed here since our concern is with the under-achiever. If achievement is less than the predicted achievement, then an under-achiever has been identified at which time a theory is invoked that might explain the deficiency.

A theory of under-achievement which is commonly held, either overtly or covertly and articulately or inarticulately, postulates that under-achievement is a function of unresolved personal and/or social adjustment problems which divert the energy of the student from his school work to such problems. In short, the energy which he might devote to his school work is sapped and focused on emotional problems instead. Thus,

remedying under-achievement involves ferreting out the emotional problems, usually one attempts to identify these problems by means of an adjustment inventory, then working toward their resolution. When resolved, the student will be theoretically able to achieve commensurate with his intellectual capacity. Parenthetically, a curious predicament occurs, and it occurs not infrequently, when no emotional problem can be isolated. From direct observation of and work with counselors, this theory is believed to be commonly held and widely practiced.

The notion that under-achievement is rooted in emotional problems is one for which empirical validation can readily be found; however, support cannot be found in the amount in which one might be lead to believe that it can be found. Furthermore, if the other theory of under-achievement, which is discussed later, and the theory already described were applied indiscriminately to a random sample of under-achievers, it is highly probable on *a priori* grounds that the latter will receive less support than the former principally because the "adjustment" theory is less immediately related to the act of achievement.

The competing theory postulates that the breakdown in achievement is primarily a function of deficiencies in the mental processes that are used in apprehending the content which is to be learned. Achievement involves the interaction of a particular content and mental processes for dealing with it. When the content is not available on which to apply the processes, there will be no achievement; when the content is available and the processes are impaired, there will be no achievement; and, certainly, when there is neither content nor process, no achievement will result. It seems that postulating mental processes as the cause of poor achievement causes one to come to grips directly with crucial aspects of the achievement process; whereas the "adjustment" theory in a sense leads one to consider characteristics of the person that are much more remote. However, neither conception supplants the other, for undoubtedly many diverse factors can cause poor achievement, but it is not difficult to contend that the "mental process" conception will be valid in more cases than will the "adjustment" conception.

The mental processes that are referred to here are listed, defined, and discussed in the *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives*.¹ The major categories are as follows: knowledge (processes of remembering), comprehension (translation, interpretation, and extrapolation), application, analysis (of elements, relationships, and organizational principles), synthesis (production of unique communication, production of a planned set of operations, derivation of abstract relations), and evaluation (in terms of internal evidence and external criteria).

The application of the "mental process" theory thus would require the counselor initially to appraise the content that is known by the student,

¹ Bloom, B. S. (ed.), *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives*. New York: Longmans, Green and Co. 1956.

then to appraise his ability to manipulate that content with the intellectual skills and abilities described in the preceding paragraph.

Unfortunately, test technology is primitive when judged in terms of its ability to provide measures of these processes. Exploratory test development has begun, but actual accomplishments to this point are sparse. Consequently, even though one might be convinced on the face of it that the theory advanced here has greater utility, such utility is only potential until instruments are developed with which to make the necessary appraisals. But even when the needed instruments are available, and undoubtedly they will be available soon, there will still exist the problem of developing training programs intended for increasing student mastery of these mental skills and abilities.

It is apparent that considerable fundamental work in test development and instructional programs will have to be done before the theory of achievement and its diagnosis described here can be used profitably. One might understandably complain that criticism should not be leveled at the "adjustment" theory when there is not another practical theory to be used in its place or with it. One who demurs on those grounds misses the writer's intentions and retards development of realistic techniques of diagnosing educational achievement and remedying it. Until there is dissatisfaction with the "adjustment" theory, little will be done in the way of developing needed testing instruments and training programs inasmuch as the "adjustment" theory fails to take these factors, which are believed to be awfully significant, into account. Furthermore, since follow-up study of the effectiveness of such counseling is both rare and crude, it is probable that no evidence will be gathered that will diminish the naive credence vested in the "adjustment" theory.

The processes involved in diagnosing and remedying achievement deficiency of normal students are relatively uncultivated. The general area is quite complex and dealing in it effectively surely requires the skills and abilities of the highly trained specialist. However, the area is not regarded as a specialty and there are no collegiate training programs designed specifically and wholly for preparing people to work in the area. Perhaps as guidance plots its course for the future years, a berth will be provided for this specialty.

Grading Policy in the Toledo High Schools*

FOR most of the students and their parents, the grades received in the various subjects take on great importance. Possibly too much concern is felt about grades, and the school people should emphasize the importance of learning as the goal of education, rather than grades. But it is true that the school itself puts a premium on grades: they go into the selection of students for various school honors and in determining class rank. For college-bound students, scholarships and even admission are involved. Prospective employers are also frequently interested in knowing about the marks received in high school. It is important, therefore, that grades be issued on the basis of carefully thought-out policies and procedures. Following are statements of policy adopted by the Board of Education concerning grading in the Toledo high schools:

1. Any policies on this subject have to be stated in generalities, and each department and teacher will need to apply them to the specific subjects. However, it is important that the application of the policies be consistent within a school. Therefore, each department ought regularly to review its grading practices, and insofar as feasible establish common standards of expectation, so that all teachers of the same subject may have a general understanding of what the various grades mean in terms of performance. Each school and each department ought regularly to study the distribution of grades to ascertain that the spread is a reasonable one.

2. All grades should be based on carefully recorded data. This makes it unnecessary for the teacher to rely on memory alone, and also avoids the appearance of caprice. The students should understand the elements which go into determining a grade for each subject, and information as to the extent to which they achieve the various aspects of the work should be available to them. Some teachers handle this matter successfully through the "open grade book" procedure. It is good practice to encourage students to keep their own record of their day-to-day grades.

All grades issued during a grading period should go into the final grade; a student should not be failed on the basis of any one assignment or test. Grades should be taken frequently, at least once per week in most subjects.

* This statement of policy was originally prepared by a joint committee representing the six high schools in Toledo. These persons were: Robert Rettig of Woodward, *chairman*; Marshall Lipman of Waite, *secretary*; and the following members—Mrs. Margaret King of DeVilbiss, Lasetta Pickard of Libbey, Vera Baymiller of Scott, Mrs. Marian Wills of Whitney, Mrs. Thelma White of Woodward, Mrs. Mildred Farr, *Director of Teaching and Guidance*, and Mrs. Leona Probst, *Coordinator of High-School Instruction*.

The number of absences for which the student has not made up the work missed should certainly be a factor in determining the grade a student receives in a subject.

3. Insofar as possible, each grade should represent the honest achievement of the student. To this end, the teacher has a responsibility to use such measures as are appropriate to encourage honesty and, on the other hand, to assure that cheating does not occur.

4. The distribution of grades within a class should reflect the student composition of the class. Where students are classified into slow, average, and fast sections (as in English and history, for example), the grade distribution should be different from group to group. A class made up of slow students in what amounts to a remedial class would not follow the so-called "normal curve" distribution of marks. In such a class it would be expected that the curve would be skewed downward.

The grades for a group composed of superior students, on the other hand, would need to be skewed upward. It is especially important that the able students not be penalized grade-wise for being placed in "fast" sections, nor for electing difficult subjects. It would be expected that in some classes all the grades would be A's and B's. Although an A grade should represent excellent achievement, in classes composed of highly selected students it is possible that most of the grades would be A's. The normal curve or normal distribution of marks is not applicable to any one class.

5. Any student enrolled in a "slow" class of a *required* department who achieves to the best of his ability and whose attendance record is satisfactory should receive at least a D grade during the first two years. This is based on the idea that, under the compulsory school laws, the school should make it possible for every willing student to achieve a minimum of success. Since our slowest students are usually two-years retarded by the time they reach high school, they become 18 years of age (the end of compulsory education) during their second or third years in high school.

6. Misbehavior, as such, should not enter into determining a quarter or semester grade. However, since it is very unlikely that a student who persistently has misbehaved can have covered the classroom work satisfactorily, this would automatically be reflected in the grade.

7. Where students of high ability are enrolled in an honors class, the records and transcripts of such students should indicate (by asterisk) that they were in such a class.

A New Viewpoint in Aptitude Testing

J. F. GIBLETTE

A. G. PACKARD

MANY questions arise as to the function of aptitude tests in the school program. While direction is much the same for all students, (helping each individual to go as far as he can in terms of aptitudes, abilities, and interests), the identification of such terms often poses a difficult problem for educators, particularly school counselors. The increasing number of students enrolled in school causes a relatively smaller amount of time available for guidance for the individual student.

The Baltimore Public School System is attempting to provide an effective measurement of aptitudes in the junior high school as one means of providing the counselor and the student with needed data for guidance purposes quickly and effectively. A battery of aptitude tests is administered to each student in the first half of grade eight. This time in the school career was chosen for two primary considerations. The first of these is because the student has opportunity to make a choice of courses in grade nine which may profoundly affect his future school career. The second consideration is concerned with the fact that so much emphasis in American education is placed on getting students "on the right track" as early as possible in terms of individual potential.

Grade eight appears to be the earliest point at which maturation permits the differential measurement of characteristics which may indicate potential. Aptitudes emerge in recognizable sets at different periods of growth for different individuals. For example, an indication of general intellectual ability can be obtained relatively early in the school experience. But mathematical ability must await the acquisition and development of specific skills before discrimination can be made among students from the total population. Academically, students can be differentiated earlier than grade eight, but the measurement of aptitudes cannot be accomplished effectively until the various skills are developed to a point at which they are differentiable. This point is generally ages thirteen and fourteen, the norm age for students in the eighth grade.

The tests in the battery are a combination of published and indigenous measuring devices. Students are given the battery in their own school buildings and in their own classrooms, whenever possible. Trained psychometrists administer the battery, allowing for a great deal more standardization than is usually available in this type of testing. Test papers are machine-scored and a profile-type report is made for each student.

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The battery attempts to differentiate among characteristics within the general population. This is not an attempt to identify a specific aptitude, such as mechanical, clerical, or art, but is, rather, an attempt to measure factors which are contributory to all aptitudes. The concept implied here is the multi-factor concept, wherein specific skills are made up of a combination of factors varying in degree, in kind, or in amount. The results of the battery are returned to the school interpretive form. Predictions of potential success in various areas are given. These are not curricular areas; they do, rather, provide guides to relative strengths and weaknesses in broad areas designated as verbal, mechanical, technical, scientific, mathematical, and commercial.

A similar battery is given to students in grade eleven to aid in guidance beyond the high school. It is, of necessity, geared to college prediction, but various factors in this battery give indications of success in areas other than college.

The validation of the program is proceeding with deliberate speed. The availability of criteria is, of course, a difficult problem, but a research program has been planned and is being carried out, to follow students at least through the secondary school. Intelligence and general achievement tests are given to all students in higher grades, special achievement tests are given in various subject areas, and teachers' marks are obtained. All these provide informative data toward observing the relationship between prediction and success. Assuredly, much knowledge is already available from pilot studies run in the past twenty years, but no program has been extensively planned heretofore.

Test results are not considered to be total nor final. They are guides to be used in conjunction with all other data for any student. They do, however, provide additional information which apparently cannot be obtained in any other manner. The counselor thus becomes the focal person who synthesizes and interprets the data concerning general ability, scholastic aptitude, achievement, interests aptitudes, and socio-economic information to provide a wealth of material to aid the student and his parents in making wise educational and vocational choices in line with his best direction.

Testing—A Vital Part of Every Child's School Program

RICHARD F. DEFOREST

STUDENTS in the Clarkstown Junior-Senior High School are tested many times during their last six years of school. These tests are used not only to determine what the students have learned, but also to show what they can learn and to help those who will be working with each pupil to understand why some pupils will be fast, average, or slow learners. All of this information is then used to place each student where he can develop to the best of his ability.

Upon entering the junior high school, each seventh-grade pupil finds himself in new surroundings. A departmental program brings him into contact with several different teachers each day, each specializing in a subject matter field. How will he be able to make out in these subjects? Naturally, his performance in the first six grades in these general subject areas is a strong indicator. However, a scholastic aptitude (I.Q.) test is administered to determine if the youngster has continued to grow in his aptitude to do school work, primarily reading comprehension and mathematical reasoning.

If his aptitude and past performance are low, it means he will probably encounter difficulty in high-school subjects and may have to progress at a slower pace and may experience failure in some subject areas. If his performance is average or above, he should be able to handle most high-school subjects and probably qualify for college or further training beyond high school. If his performance is superior, it may indicate a "gifted" student who can be guided toward the fullest development of his resources.

The records which accompany each pupil to the junior high school aid the guidance counselors and subject matter teachers to determine areas of individual weakness. Remedial reading groups are organized for those whose reading is below grade level. Each seventh-grade teacher studies the past performance of her pupils and endeavors, through teaching, classroom drill, and homework assignments, to improve the achievement level of each pupil.

Later in the year, a reading test is taken by each seventh-grade pupil to check his reading growth, identify weaknesses and provide teachers with objective information to further help the pupil. At the end of the year, final examinations in each subject measure the pupil's achievement in these areas and are used as part of the criteria to determine eligibility for promotion.

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In the eighth grade, the New York State Science Progress Tests are administered each fall and spring to determine each pupil's growth in this area. An Interest Inventory, a form of test which indicates vocational interests in eight general areas, is taken by all eighth-grade pupils as part of their preparation for selecting their high-school program. Later in the year, state progress tests in English, citizenship education, and mathematics are administered. The school year closes with final examinations in all subjects.

In grade nine, most pupils have matured enough so that specific aptitudes may be identified by a Differential Aptitude Test. This test is actually a battery of nine tests covering verbal, numerical, abstract reasoning, space, mechanical, clerical, spelling, and sentence structure aptitudes. Results are depicted upon a graph which is sent home to each parent with a description of the aptitudes tested. A reading test at mid-year is used to view reading growth and subject matter tests at the end of the year to measure each pupil's individual classroom achievement.

Grade ten seems to be a good time for a reappraisal of the pupil's academic record. Individual I.Q., reading, and aptitude tests are given to those pupils needing special assistance and guidance. Subject matter achievement is tested by mid-term tests and the New York State Regents examinations at the end of the year.

Each eleventh-grade pupil in the Clarkstown District is offered an opportunity for a complete "day of testing" at the Testing Center operated by the Vocational Education and Extension Board in New York City. This is an unusual experience for high-school pupils and an excellent means of evaluating their past academic progress and predicting future possibilities. Interest inventories, reading, college ability, and various aptitude tests are taken. A complete written report is later sent to each parent and copies filed in the guidance folder of each pupil in his local school.

In April of the junior year, those high-average pupils who are seeking scholarships take the *National Merit Scholarship Examination*. This is the most highly publicized scholarship examination in the nation. Clarkstown has had a winner in two of the past four years.

In May of the junior year, each college-bound pupil is encouraged to take the *Scholastic Aptitude Test* of the College Entrance Examination Board. This test is used as a part of the guidance procedure in helping pupils make appropriate college plans. In addition, it provides a trial run for those examinations which are required in the senior year by many colleges for admission. At the end of the year, Regents examinations and final subject matter examinations measure achievement in English, history, mathematics, science, and foreign languages.

In the senior year, a scholastic aptitude (IQ) test is administered to all seniors as a final record of their intellectual growth and capacity. Several Scholarship Qualifying Tests, including the *New York State Regents Scholarship Examination*, are taken during the fall semester by

those college-bound students seeking scholarships. Mid-term tests indicate progress at the half-way mark and in June of the senior year, Regents examinations and final tests measure subject matter achievement to determine eligibility for graduation.

It is clear, then, that testing plays a very important and vital part of every pupil's school program whether he plans on college, a trade, or a business career. Tests aren't the last word because they can't measure determination, motivation, and drive. These intangibles have to be determined by the teacher on the basis of specially assigned projects and daily recitations. Tests do provide objective information which helps counselors and teachers to better understand and teach each individual.

High School Graduates and College Admittance

ROBERT D. FLEISCHER

WHO are our graduates that go to college? What are their chances for college admittance? How well do they fare after being admitted? What are the best predictive criteria for college success? This study will attempt to answer these questions. Although we have an obligation to all our young people, particular interest should be given to the college-bound group.

Colleges vary greatly in their admittance practices. Some are more selective than others and the degree of selectivity, is, to a great extent, dependent upon the demand for admittance. Artificial shortages exist, particularly with the old-time Eastern universities such as Yale, Princeton, Dartmouth, and Harvard. Making multiple applications has become the rule rather than the exception. High-school seniors do this in self-defense because of the great demand upon and the accompanying selectivity of that type of institution.

Our experience bears out the findings of many studies.¹ The following criteria are used by colleges in the selection of their students: (1) grad-

¹ Fine, Benjamin, *Admission to American Colleges*, Harper, 1946. Pp. 1-54; Mattox, M. E., *Problems of College Admission*. University of Kentucky, College of Education, Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, Vol. 19, No. 3, 1947. Pp. 99-102.

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uation from an accredited secondary school; (2) average of secondary-school marks/rank in graduating class; (3) recommendation of principal or teachers; (4) aptitude, achievement, and psychological test scores; (5) personal interviews; and (6) evidence of good moral character. Probably the most important single criterion is class rank. However, most colleges rely on a combination of the above factors.

College admittance practices are now characterized by flexibility. Actually, four methods of administering college entrance requirements have been emphasized at different periods.² They are:

1. 1836 to 1850—oral examination
2. 1850 to 1900—written examinations
3. 1900 to 1930—prescription of patterns of high-school subjects
4. 1930 to the present—prescribed patterns still dominates, but an increasing concern for knowledge of personal qualities of students by such requirements as principal's recommendation, interviews, and aptitude tests

In recent years, we have seen an increasing reliance on the Scholastic Aptitude Tests (SAT) of the College Entrance Examination Board (CEEB). The flexibility that has developed in admission practices was brought on by the results of numerous investigations in the 1920's and 1930's which cast some doubt upon the validity of requirements set by colleges. Several studies have shown that students without prescribed patterns of high-school subjects have done as well as students who had followed prescribed subject patterns.³

In view of this knowledge of flexibility and the varying degree of selectivity in college admittance, we can somewhat safely state that a Nutley High School graduate can go to some college if he so desires. The chart below bears this out; the Class of 1958 had 75 graduates who attended bachelor-degree granting institutions. Among these students, there is a wide range in both ability and class rank. Most of the students went to the college of their first choice; some had to "shop" for a school to admit them. The great majority of the students completed their first college year with average or above average grades.

	<i>IQ</i>	<i>H.S. Rank</i>	<i>H.S. G.P.A.</i>	<i>SAT V</i>	<i>SAT M</i>	<i>College Grade Pt. Average</i>
High	141	1 (99+ %ile)	4.00	718	693	4.00
Median	112	60 (79th %ile)	2.56	517	518	2.39
Low	93	198 (18th %ile)	1.38	310	274	0.50

² Bollman, Thelma R., *Relation of College Entrance Requirements and the Secondary School Curriculum*. Doctor's thesis. University of Texas, 1942.

³ See Faunce, R. C., *Some Went to College*. Michigan Study of the Secondary-School Curriculum, State Board of Education, 1945.

The typical 1958 Nutley High School graduate who entered college ranked in upper levels of the second fifth of the class. He had an IQ of 112, and attained a 2.56 grade average (B- or C+ grade). The range in class rank, IQ, and SAT scores clearly shows that there are wide variations in the admittance practices of colleges.

One is struck by the relationship between final class rank and the college success as measured by the freshman year grade-point average. Calculation of Rho by the method of rank difference showed that there is a significant relationship between these two variables. The coefficient of correlation between high-school class rank and college success is .588. To be significant at the .05 level, the correlation coefficient had to be .231; at the .01 level the correlation coefficient had to be .300. This means that only 5 times in 100 trials would an r as large as $\pm .231$ appear by accident of sampling if the population r were actually .00; and only once in 100 trials would an r as large as $\pm .300$ appear if the population r were .00. The obtained r of .558, since it is much larger than .300, is significant. It can be concluded on the basis of this study that success in high school is a good predictor of success in college.

In using the same statistical procedure, we found that the relationship between college success and the College Board Verbal SAT Test is significant at the .05 level, but not significant at the .01 level. The same is applicable to the relationship between college success and IQ. However, the relationship between college success and the College Board Math SAT Test was found to be *not* significant at either the .05 level or the .01 level. The chart below summarizes these findings.

Correlation Coefficients Between College
Success and Various Variables

Variables	r	Significant at	
		.05 level	.01 level
A. College Success and High-School Class Rank	.588	Yes	Yes
B. College Success and SAT-Verbal Test Score	.293*	Yes	No
C. College Success and Otis IQ Obtained in High School	.266	Yes	No
D. College Success and SAT-Math Test Score	.167*	No	No

* Adjusted r to compensate for factor that only 63 of the 75 students took College Board SAT Tests.

Close analysis of individual college achievement indicates that there is no fool-proof predictor of college success. Reliance on any single criterion is dangerous. We find that individuals who do well in high school will generally do well in college. However, there are individual cases where this is not applicable.

IN CONCLUSION

In answer to the questions posed at the beginning of this article, we can conclude:

1. Who are our graduates that go to college? Typically, our young person ranks in the upper level of the second fifth of the class, has an almost "B" average, his College Board Verbal score is 517, his College Board Math score is 518, and he has an IQ of 112.

2. What are the chances for a Nutley High School graduate to be admitted to college? Very good. Almost all of our college-bound graduates were accepted by the college of their choice.

3. How well do they fare after being admitted? The median grade-point average is 2.39, or C+. The great majority, over sixty per cent, of the students completed their first year in college with average or above-average grades. Forty-three per cent of the grades received were honor grades (A or B).

4. What are the best predictive criteria for college success? The relationship between college success and high-school class rank is significant. This remains as the best predictor for college success.

Disciplinary Concepts

EDWIN M. BRIDGES

PERHAPS the most neglected area in the preparation of college students for teaching is discipline. These students learn only (1) that discipline is desirable and (2) that it contributes more to teacher failure than any other cause. Educators write it off as a "concomitant outcome." Unanswered and undiscussed for the teacher tyro are such questions as: What is discipline? What constitutes good discipline? How is good discipline achieved?

With beginning teachers inadequately oriented psychologically and professionally to the nature of discipline, each principal must define explicitly his philosophy, expectations, and procedures concerning discipline. Even more important, as a need for clarification, is the lack of unanimity among administrators in the aforementioned areas. This disparity should not be attributed to the shortcomings of administrators, but rather to their dissimilar personalities and school experiences from which they have evolved workable means for dealing with the enigmatical concept of discipline.

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A breakdown in discipline with its accompanying reduction in teacher effectiveness results from insufficient or nebulous communication between teacher and principal. Good school and classroom discipline are seldom possible when teacher and principal operate in different conceptual frameworks complicated further by neither knowing what the other expects or considers sound disciplinary practice. Unity of action is not achieved by extra-sensory perception or attempted reading of one another's minds, and indecision and uncertainty are not conducive to good discipline.

DISCIPLINE: DEFINED

Discipline is control—a mixture of teacher, administrator, and self-control. The external control becomes evident only as the student's self-control breaks down or falters. This form of discipline does not prevail in a classroom where the teacher is a martinet. For here, discipline originates with the teacher and, by virtue of this, is one-dimensional since there is little or no provision for a student to develop his self-control, a necessity for happy and successful participation in a democratic society.

PENALTIES AS DISCIPLINE

Many well-meaning administrators have listed rules and regulations with fixed penalties in an attempt to gain control by punishment. Unfortunately, the forbidden actions are forbidden fruit—they have intrinsic appeal and provide unacceptable means for children to meet one of their basic needs—the need for adventure.

Prescribed penalties, furthermore, dictate action and limit administrators and teachers in how they employ their training and experience in dealing with young adults. There can be no allowances for unusual circumstances or conditions contributing to the breakdown in discipline.

CONCLUSION

No attempt has been made in this article to describe disciplinary techniques and day-to-day procedures, or could there be without the author violating his major premise—a recognition of numerous successful approaches to discipline and a need on the part of administrators to clarify their approaches. The administrator who would have his teachers confidently, conscientiously, and effectively striving to promote good discipline must acquaint them with his comprehensive view of discipline in its philosophical and operational aspects.

Policies with Regard To Smoking

LOUIS G. BRANDES

MANY parents and educators feel that the California statutes related to the possession and use of tobacco on the part of high-school youngsters are unrealistic. As a result, school enforcement of the statutes may be overlooked and/or "escape gaps" provided that lend themselves to more effective control of smoking and the problems associated with smoking. An "escape gap" that has received considerable publicity is the provision for a smoking area, where youngsters are permitted to smoke before school, at lunch time, and/or after school. The kinds of questions being raised concerning smoking on the part of high school youngsters are:

1. To what extent are smoking areas permitted by California high schools?
2. Should a smoking area be permitted near or about the school grounds?
3. Does the provision of a smoking area offer more effective control of smoking and problems associated with smoking?
4. Can the problems associated with smoking be controlled without providing a smoking area?

To provide information to assist in formulating policy for the two high schools of the Alameda Unified School District, a study of smoking practices in large California high schools was undertaken. A "grass root" reaction was desired. Hence, a questionnaire was planned and circulated.

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

High schools including grades nine through twelve or grades ten through twelve and reporting enrollments of over 1,000 in the *California School Directory*, 1959-60, were listed in order of appearance in the directory. There were 245 such schools. Approximately half of these schools, exclusive of the Alameda schools, were mailed a questionnaire. One hundred twenty-two questionnaires were mailed on April 18, 1960. No follow-up requests were made.

One-hundred twelve (91.8%) of the questionnaires were returned. Two returns were not tallied; one was incomplete and one was from a school reporting less than 1,000 enrollment. One-hundred ten questionnaires were tabulated for this report. Seventy-five of the returns were completed by principals; the remainder were completed by subordinate administrators. Forty representatives making returns made comments supporting their views. These comments ranged in length from a few lines to several pages.

Do you have a smoking area where students attending your school are permitted to smoke during noon hour and before and after school? Rep-

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representatives from 10 schools indicates *Yes*; 100 indicated *No*. There was no apparent relation between an indication of *Yes* or *No* and the types of areas in which schools were located (urban, semi-urban, or rural), the geographic areas in which the schools were located (northern section or southern section), or the sizes of the schools.

RESPONSES FROM REPRESENTATIVES INDICATING THAT A SMOKING AREA WAS PROVIDED

Is the smoking area on the school grounds? Two school representatives indicated *Yes*; 8 indicated *No*. One of the two school representatives responding *Yes* indicated the area was used during lunch time only, the other indicated that students were permitted to smoke in their parking area while seated in cars.

Who supervises the smoking area? The representatives of five schools indicated one or more faculty members were assigned for smoking area supervision, three indicated that members of the administrative staff patrolled the smoking area, and two indicated that no supervision was provided. Three representatives, indicating faculty supervision, mentioned assistance by student groups. One representative, indicating administrative supervision, mentioned the assistance of a hired officer during the noon hour. Mention was made by one representative that a teaching period was allowed for faculty members assigned to supervision duty.

Are you considering discontinuing the smoking area? Representatives from nine schools responded on this item; one indicated *Yes* and eight indicated *No*. The representative responding *Yes* indicated that the smoking area gave a poor appearance to the school.

Are penalties invoked for smoking in areas about the school other than the smoking area? Representatives from nine schools responded on this item; all indicated *Yes*. Penalties mentioned ranged from a warning and restriction to the school grounds to an automatic two-week suspension. Five representatives mentioned suspension as a penalty; three of these mentioned that a parental conference was required prior to the return to school by a pupil.

Do you feel that providing the smoking area has helped control the smoking problem for your school? Representatives from eight schools responded on this item; all of these indicated *Yes*. Selected comments on this item are as follows:

Provision of a school smoking area is a necessity.

Since making provision for a smoking area, we have had very little smoking in other areas.

Smoking in lavatories has practically disappeared.

It has certainly kept smoking on the grounds to a bare minimum.

Do you have a faculty smoking room? The representatives of all the schools who indicated a smoking area responded *Yes* on this item. Places mentioned where faculty members could smoke included lunchrooms, lounges, and physical education offices. Selected comments from representatives indicating that a smoking area was provided at their schools are as follows:

The only rules we have are: No smoking on school grounds; students are not permitted to carry cigarettes in public view.

We permit smoking immediately off the campus. Smoking regulations cannot be enforced off-campus unless the faculty is willing to help. A dean or vice-principal can not do it alone.

Parents know their youngsters smoke and do not object. They can purchase cigarettes easily. Where does the problem begin and end?

So far we have had no adverse comments from parents; smoking on the school grounds has certainly been reduced to a minimum.

RESPONSES FROM REPRESENTATIVES INDICATING THAT A SMOKING AREA WAS NOT PROVIDED

Are students permitted to have cigarettes or tobacco in their possession at school? Representatives from 97 schools responded on this item; 23 indicated *Yes* and 74 indicated *No*. Sixteen of the representatives responding *Yes* mentioned that cigarettes were not to be in sight. Twenty-one of the representatives responding *No* indicated an awareness of possession, but indicated no search of students is made. Following are excerpts from comments by representatives indicating *YES*:

If cigarettes are visible, they are confiscated; parents may pick them up in the office. A possession letter is sent home. We do not look into pockets.

We don't make an issue of possession.

The law prohibits possession, yet, if we were to enforce it, we would have truck loads of cigarettes or three fourths of the school suspended.

Following are excerpts from comments by representatives responding *NO*:

We don't enforce this regulation unless students display them.

Students are asked to cooperate, but no action is taken unless the students blatantly flaunt the law.

We confiscate any tobacco seen, but do not search students.

If possession is permitted, it is harder to enforce no-smoking regulations.

It is difficult to get teachers to assist with enforcement.

We are unaware of possession if cigarettes are hidden from sight.

If your answer to the previous question is No, what penalties are involved for possession of cigarettes or other forms of tobacco? Sixty-nine (of 74) representatives responded on this item. Penalties (one or more mentioned by each school), in order of frequency of mention, are as follows:

1. Suspension upon first offense.....	30
2. Warning and/or reprimand.....	28
3. Confiscation of cigarettes.....	15
4. Parental conference.....	8
5. Letter to parent.....	5
6. Suspension upon second offense.....	5
7. Suspension upon third offense.....	4
8. Detention time assigned.....	2
9. Must sign an agreement not to smoke.....	1

The times of suspensions reported ranged from the time parents came to school for a conference to a period of one week for first offenders and up to two weeks for repeaters.

What kinds of penalties are invoked for smoking on the school grounds? All representatives responded to this item. Penalties (one or more mentioned by each school), in order of frequency of mention, are as follows:

1. Suspension upon first offense.....	78
2. Parental conference.....	21
3. Expulsion for repeaters.....	8
4. Suspension upon second offense.....	6
5. Warning and/or reprimand.....	4
6. Transfer to another school for repeaters.....	3
7. Notification letter home.....	3
8. Suspension upon third offense.....	2
9. Paddling.....	1
10. Demerits.....	1
11. Saturday work assignment.....	1

The times of suspensions for first offenders ranged from overnight to two weeks. One representative indicated a choice by pupils of a paddling or suspension. Fourteen representatives indicated the penalties for possession of tobacco and for smoking were the same.

At what distance from the school grounds is smoking permitted (on part of students)? Ninety-nine representatives responded on this item. The distances, in order of frequency of mention, are as follows:

1. One block.....	26
2. Two blocks.....	22
3. Immediately off school grounds.....	12
4. Across the street from school.....	10
5. Out of sight from school.....	8
6. Smoking is not permitted.....	8
7. At point where it is not associated with school.....	4
8. Three blocks.....	2
9. Two or three blocks.....	1
10. At least one-half block from school boundary.....	1
11. Away from vicinity of school.....	1
12. At home, one hour after school closes.....	1
13. Fifty yards from school while on the move.....	1
14. Restricted on both sides of streets bounding school.....	1
15. Off-ground supervision provided by police.....	1

What penalties are invoked for smoking off the school grounds (in areas near or adjacent to the school)? Representatives from 95 schools responded on this item. Penalties (one or more mentioned by each school), in order of frequency of mention, are as follows:

1. Suspension upon first offense	47
2. No penalty	29
3. Suspension upon second offense	15
4. Warning and/or reprimand	14
5. Parental conference	10
6. Detention time assigned	3
7. Letter to parents	2
8. Loss of privileges	2
9. Transfer to another school for repeaters	2
10. Expulsion for repeaters	2

Twelve representatives indicated that penalties were the same for possession of tobacco, for smoking on the school grounds, and for smoking off of the school grounds; 31 representatives indicated penalties were the same for smoking on the school grounds as for smoking off of the school grounds.

Who enforces and/or helps enforce smoking restrictions at your school? Persons (one or more mentioned by each school), in order of frequency of mention, are as follows:

1. Deans and/or vice principals	51
2. All faculty members	46
3. Administrative staff	32
4. Assigned teachers on patrol	25
5. Members of student council	11
6. All certificated staff members	10
7. Special assigned officers	8
8. Assistant principals	6
9. Principals	5
10. Attendance supervisors	3
11. Coaches	2
12. Classified personnel	1
13. Registrar	1

A number of representatives mentioned that the deans or vice principals did the disciplining, while all members of the staff helped to enforce the rules.

Have you ever had a smoking area near or adjacent to your school? Representatives from 98 schools responded on this item; five indicated *Yes* and 93 indicated *No*. The following reasons were given for discontinuing the smoking areas:

Pressure was exerted by principals of other high schools to discontinue the smoking area.

We lost the use of the area serving as a smoking area.

We were told it was against the law.

Are you considering providing, or defining, a smoking area near or adjacent to your school where smoking will be permitted? All representatives responded on this item; four indicated *Yes* and 96 indicated *No*. Selected comments on this item by representatives are as follows:

We do not intend to compromise with punks and hoods.

We cannot consider such a move until the state law permits.

Our community and school board will have no part of it.

It deserves consideration.

I am very much in favor of a smoking area.

A smoking area would help to prevent the scattering of smokers throughout the community.

Do you have a faculty smoking room? All representatives responded on this item; 98 indicated *Yes* and two indicated *No*. Selected comments on this item by representatives are as follows:

We feel the faculty should have the right to smoke.

Smoking on the part of adults is generally accepted by students and community.

Members of the faculty are adults and are legally entitled to smoke.

At school, smoking is an adult privilege, not a juvenile privilege.

GENERAL COMMENTS

Representatives of schools were asked to make comments concerning smoking on the part of students. Excerpts that "pretty well" summarize the comments are as follows:

Concerning Enforcement

We have no noticeable problem with smoking. Students are given to understand that smoking is their own business and that it is not treated by the school as a moral issue. However, it is a legal issue when smoking takes place on school property.

We have had very little difficulty with smoking since we have become rigid in our suspension policy.

Student cooperation in keeping smoking beyond a two-block limit from school has been good. *Espirit de corps* has been developed with the idea that any good impressions given by students will pay dividends in later life.

We have an open campus; consequently, our smoking problem is not too severe. If our campus is closed, we will have to consider measures to enforce smoking rules.

Smoking is our most difficult problem in maintaining a closed campus.

We publicize the smoking rules and regulations thoroughly. Offenders know they are gambling when they elect to take the chance on smoking. We do not feel that smoking has been a problem this year.

Smoking is a constant problem and needs the full support of the entire faculty, with constant reminders to students concerning the possession and use of tobacco. We find parents need counseling as to their responsibilities; their permission for smoking at home leads their children to believe they may smoke anywhere and any time.

Smoking continues to be a problem. Supervision and enforcement of smoking regulations are continual, difficult, and time-consuming.

Support for Current Smoking Regulations

We are opposed to any kind of on-campus smoking area.

As long as the law is on the books, I am going to do everything in my power to support the law.

Since the School Code is permissive, we can do only those things granted by it. Where can administrators find it permissive to set up a smoking area? It is poor educational procedure to provide a smoking area on or near school grounds when this would be breaking the law?

Let us not give in to the whims of the students or to the tobacco companies.

Just because some students insist on acting like adults, I believe as educators we know what is right and good for young people. We should stand our ground and fight against tobacco and all other things that are not beneficial for youth.

The parent attitude, "I don't want him smoking behind my back, so I let him smoke in front of me," is a weak sister approach. The behind-the-back smoking still goes on and the amount is increased.

I would urge that the schools do everything possible to keep young people from smoking. Are there no limits? Are young people to do everything adults do? Is nothing "reserved" for the adult population? Many of us are going to watch with great interest to see what controls the next generation exercises.

Critical of Current Smoking Regulations

The law now is a farce.

Students will smoke. They do not want to be sneaky about it. Denying the privilege will only lead to deceit and evasion. Some well-controlled system is needed: one that will not extoll the "smoker" in the eyes of the "non-smoker."

We feel that it would be better to have a smoking area than to force the students out into the community where we cannot supervise them. We simply do not have the supervision force to regulate and enforce no-smoking rules.

I feel that a smoking area on school grounds would eliminate most of our smoking problem. The big question is on legality.

A smoking area plan was tried at this school for students and it was very successful. It was discontinued only because of pressure from adjoining high schools. This merely drove smoking "underground" at our school.

We tried a smoking area for one year and it worked very well. The community and school board supported the arrangement. It was discontinued because we were told it was illegal.

Smoking is a major school headache. The present laws are beyond enforcement unless authorities will prosecute parents and business for providing tobacco. I recommend some modification.

I think smoking laws should be brought up to date! Although students obey our regulations quite well, I don't feel we have the solution to the smoking problem as yet.

It seems to me that we should work for the repeal of the Code sections pertaining to smoking; they have become outdated.

Requests to follow state regulations have had little effect on smokers. Suspension is not a solution: it aroused student and parent hostility.

The school is the last agency still attempting to enforce a series of laws that are all but ignored by society. Students can purchase cigarettes from machines; many parents either furnish cigarette or have no objection to their children smoking.

CALIFORNIA STATUTES

Section 24 of the *California Administrative Code*, Title V, Education, reads as follows: "Principals and teachers shall exercise careful supervision over the moral conditions in their respective schools. Gambling, immorality, profanity, frequenting public pool rooms, the use of tobacco, narcotics, and intoxicating liquors on the school grounds, or elsewhere, on the part of pupils shall not be tolerated."

Section 16073 of the *California Education Code* provides for suspension or expulsion. Causes for suspension or expulsion include "smoking cigarettes or having cigarettes upon school premises."

REFLECTIONS

Indications are that few large California high schools have established a smoking area where students are permitted to smoke before school, after school, and/or during lunch periods. Some schools, however, do make provisions for a smoking area. Where a smoking area has been established, it is usually off of the school grounds, supervised by certificated personnel, and, in the opinion of school representatives, assists in control of student smoking on and off of school grounds.

Few schools appear to enforce the provision that "the use of tobacco . . . on the school grounds or elsewhere shall not be tolerated." Almost all schools enforce no-smoking regulations by students while on school grounds, but few representatives indicate enforcement beyond the immediate vicinity of the school. No issue is made concerning possession of tobacco by a large number of schools; many representatives indicate smoking is permitted immediately off of the school grounds. It appears that for many schools the total enforcement is not only impractical, but nearly impossible.

A general attitude toward smoking on the part of students by school officials is that the issue is a legal one and not a moral one. It is evident, however, that a good many school officials oppose the use of tobacco by students. Some of the latter have taken the point of view: "If we can't control 'em, let's join 'em."

A number of school representatives reported that smoking can be adequately controlled. It necessitates a concentrated effort by members of the entire school staff, with violations followed up and dealt with in a forceful manner. There seemed to be a question as to the time and effort necessary to enforce the smoking regulations as compared with the educational outcomes.

It was pointed out that a smoking area for high-school students on school grounds, or elsewhere, is illegal. However, smoking on the part of students at school, or elsewhere, is likewise illegal. Perhaps a further study of school policies and regulations pertaining to smoking would lead to a revision of statutes such as to provide school officials a means of more effective smoking control.

Does Coffee Tell the Tale?

ROBERT W. SIMKO

TALES must be told. America wants to know—whether it is Jack Paar, rockets, a royal wedding, or the high cost of drugs. She also wants to know about her schools and the people who run them. Editors recognize this and education news hits editions of newspapers and periodicals with regularity of taxes. Our inquiring populace demands news of our schools and will get it, either from us or others.

Coffee, unfortunately, is an inanimate product and cannot tell the tale. Yet, it may contribute to the high-school story as importantly as it does to the Brazilian economy. For coffee connotes the informality and relaxation of the housewives' morning get together. It symbolizes the pleasantries of America's workers during their morning "break." Coffee drinkers sitting together are relaxed and receptive. A perfect setting for applying the Lowell Pierce Goodrich concept of public relations, "good performance, publically appreciated."

America's high schools today provide the good performance, but may not provide the opportunity for public appreciation. Morning "coffees" with a purpose will provide that opportunity and the subsequent appreciation.

One can legitimately ask, "What does the morning coffee do that newspapers, official publications, large group meetings, student transmissions, and student publications will not?" Simply answered, it can dispell half-truths; bridge the gap of partial misunderstandings; and present the sincerity and honest correction of the informed high-school principal at work doing the best job he knows how to do. Stated queries can be answered while unmasked misgivings can be noted and dispelled. The high-school principal can assume a face-to-face relationship with up to forty parents in a matter which concerns them deeply. The mask of anonymity can be offered each, while the facts are definite, clearly stated, and applicable for those present.

What are the ingredients for a successful coffee? Coffee certainly, perhaps some home-economics prepared donuts to break tension, positive and helpful information, and a moderate-size room or the corner of a larger one. One also needs to send each family concerned an individual invitation with a return section indicating whether or not the person plans to attend. Since this invitation will partially determine attendance, it should include specific items to be examined at the meetings. A little more than two hours will usually suffice for a topic.

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The remaining question is, "How does the coffee work in practice." The answer is, very well at Schalmont Junior-Senior High School where the writer works as principal. The "Back to School Night" program, sponsored by the PTA draws thirty per cent to forty per cent of family representation. Other PTA meetings draw less than half this attendance. The Communities' Sounding Board meetings usually, on school district affairs, draws a normal maximum of a hundred persons. Yet, attendance at coffee runs as high as eighty per cent family representation for the group affected by the meeting. Not many Dads, but Mom is there to carry the facts home.

The writer has held coffees with parents of eighth grades who were about to select their high-school program; parents of seventh grades prior to the first marking period to explain marks and other facets of school operations; and to sixth grade parents in the elementary feeder schools as a part of the spring orientation program. At each program, the principal shared the speaking chores with the counselor for the given class.

The eighth-grade parents' coffee scheduled to help parents make a wise selection of their youngster's four-year program was typical. The agenda included:

1. Requirements for the Schalmont High School diploma
2. Requirements for the New York State Regents diploma
3. An explanation of the *Differential Aptitude Test Profile*
4. A general discussion of intelligence and specific interpretation of the IQ band given each parent for his child
5. Electives, courses, and programs available to Schalmont High School students

Parents were given duplicated information ranging from D.A.T. profiles and their child's IQ band score to orientation booklets for parents and appropriate magazine reprints. Personally, the writer felt a sense of accomplishment at the close of each meeting.

In retrospect the "morning coffee" is not all pervasive or the single answer to a school's public information or public relations program. It constitutes one highly important plank in the platform of the effective high school which earns public appreciation and gets community support. As such, it merits the effort.

The Student Council: A Vehicle for Teaching Democracy

GEORGE REINFELD

WHY does a high school need a student council? It seems to me that the principal and the professional staff could run the school very nicely without the assistance of student council. This is what the staff is trained and paid to do. In fact, it is probably harder initially to integrate the council idea into the general concept of operating a school than it would be simply to do without a council. For wise men have long known that dictatorship is an easier form of government than democracy. It is easier to tell the students what they must do than it is to allow them to participate in self-government. The only reason that I can see for having a student council within a school is to give students training in living according to the democratic tradition.

Now, if students are to be taught to live within the framework of the democratic tradition, they must be allowed to set up a real council with real powers of action. A sham council which merely goes through the motions of government is worse than no council at all because it teaches students to be devious and to avoid democratic responsibilities. Of course, the faculty and the administration must be certain that the students are not given functions and duties which belong rightly to the professional staff. To strike a realistic balance of delegated powers is the difficult problem. Students should be given powers of this nature:

1. Students should not be allowed to discipline themselves through a student monitor and court system; however, students should have jurisdiction over student-made rules.

2. Students should be allowed to make rules concerning such things as student dress, conduct at sports activities and other extracurricular activities, cleanliness of lunchrooms and other public places within the school, and behavior on the school grounds.

3. Students should be empowered to organize and run such civic functions as charity drives, fund drives for school projects, and school ground landscaping projects.

4. Students should be empowered to set up worth-while educational activities, such as voluntary tutoring of poor students by successful students and the setting up of a school-wide honor system.

It should be made clear that any project involving the health, safety, or educational welfare of the school must have the approval of the faculty and the administration before being put into operation. However, the

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council adviser and the faculty and administration should be careful not to invoke this safeguard unless absolutely necessary. Students should be allowed to learn by failing, providing that their failures are not permanently damaging to others.

Very few teachers and administrators seem to have faith in the ability of students to learn to govern themselves wisely. Such people might anticipate that a council might come out for pegged pants and weird haircuts as standard dress and grooming regulations. It has been my experience that students, if trusted and advised by the professional staff, will often set up higher standards than the adults choose. If a council did pass a rule requiring outlandish garb and grooming, I would not blame the student council concept. I would look closely into the morale and educational setup of the entire school. I would regard the new regulation as symptomatic of something far more serious, a neglect in the teaching of standards and values.

If the professional staff is willing to put in the effort to guide and assist the students in carrying out a wide range of school council activities, the students will learn democratic living and the staff will reap a bonus in improved student citizenship and morale.

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Advertisers Give the Student Newspaper Their Opinions

MRS. ALMA S. ANDERSON

NO SCHOOL activity is so widely accepted and deeply entrenched as the publication of the high-school newspaper. Its value as a builder of school spirit and loyalty within the school, a public relations agent outside the school, and a learning experience for the students who work on it are widely recognized.

"Advertising is the life-blood of the newspaper" is a saying that is especially true of the school paper. In almost every school the paper depends upon its subscriptions and its advertising to pay its publication costs. Many educators feel that this is as it should be. One of the learning experiences to be found in publications work is this selling contact with the business world. Alan Scott of the School of Journalism at the University of Texas expresses his opinion in an article entitled "School Publications" published in *School Activities*, April 1957: "For the paper to be subsidized by the high school or its organizations is neither necessary or desirable. Even the smallest school should be able to support its publication by subscription and/or advertising."

This is an age of advertising. Commercial advertising agencies are constantly making surveys to determine what influences buyers. Everyone who has a belief, a product, or a service to sell recognizes the value of advertising. Every business has its advertising budget. Advertising is "big business" today. The high-school newspaper has to enter this business field in order to support itself, so it should make every effort to meet the competition in a business-like way. It must convince the prospective customer of its value to him, and its interest in serving him. Business recognizes the fact that a satisfied customer is a permanent, happy customer. Are the high-school newspapers doing all they can to satisfy the business firms who advertise in them? If not, where do they fail and why?

ADVERTISERS ARE SURVEYED

Twenty advertisers were selected from twenty high-school newspapers published in the state of Oregon. These represented towns and cities ranging in population from 526 to 375,000. These advertisers represented as many different types of businesses as could be found in the advertising sections. A questionnaire was sent to each of these firms. The questionnaire contained seven questions with answers to be checked "Yes" or "No." It also contained a space for comments or suggestions that might help the school paper plan better advertising. A stamped self-addressed

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envelope was enclosed for a reply. The results of this survey and some suggestions relating to these results are given here, as well as some implications that may be inferred.

Ninety per cent of the advertisers contacted returned the questionnaire. This was an excellent response and certainly seems to indicate a marked interest in the subject. These advertisers were not asked to give their names, but eighty per cent did so. They did not hesitate to record their opinions.

"Do you take an advertisement in the high-school paper just to 'help the kids out?'" was the first question. The answer to this question was seventy per cent "Yes." The second question is related to the first, "Do the students approach you in a business-like way?" Seventy per cent responded "No." Are the student salesmen being properly prepared for their job of selling advertising space? The high-school paper has a real service to sell; it cannot and must not ask for charity. It does not want buyers to take advertisements "just to help the kids out." It wants to be recognized for what it is, a valuable service to the customer. While money is always welcome and no school would like to turn down a large advertisement which merely said "with the compliments of," student salesmen should bear in mind that this type of advertisement tends to spoil the entire appearance of the paper. A thoughtful salesman could surely find some product or service that could be featured. Pointing this fact out in a tactful manner would impress the buyer as good business.

ORGANIZING THE SALES PROGRAM

When organizing the sales program, the students should first be convinced of the value of what they are selling. They must have faith in the worth of their advertising. This will make them more assured in their approach and convincing in their sales talk. How can this be accomplished? It is a recognized fact that most students have money of their own to spend. Many have part-time jobs during the school year and work during the summer.

A survey of the student body is taken by many school newspapers to see how much money the students spend on clothing, food, cosmetics, entertainment, cars, hobbies, *etc.* This survey should be simple, and at the same time comprehensive for it is valuable in several ways. Possible customers are suggested to the sales force, and the merchants can be shown that there is a demand for their product. Lastly the survey can be used to impress on the student salesman the fact that he has something worth while to sell. It is usually surprising how much money the students spend. Where and how this money is spent may be determined by the advertisements in the school paper, for whether he reads anything else or not, the student reads the school paper. What is published in it will reach every student. The advertising salesmen can readily see that an advertisement that would draw a large percentage of the money spent for the

items on the list is well worth the money asked for the advertising space. Each salesman should feel proud of the buying power he represents.

That the school paper is read by many adults is another fact that should be stressed. Parents and relatives of the students and the adult employees of the school frequently make up quite a large group of readers. Young people often influence their parents' buying. This is especially true many times in the case of major appliances, furniture, and cars. Few families would venture to buy a new car to which their teenage children objected vigorously. Each year a large number of students graduate from high school, and those who do not go on to college enter the adult world. Many of these marry very soon after graduation and establish homes of their own. These are prospective customers for many business and professional men. Today's students are tomorrow's adults so make friends with them today.

PROVIDE SELLING TOOLS

Having convinced the salesman of the value of his product, give him some selling tools. Give him the results of the school survey, and a copy of the paper that he can show the merchant, also a book of contract forms showing the rate scales and publication dates. Prepare him for the most common reasons given for not buying advertising space. "I already advertise in the daily paper," is a common reason. Point out that many high-school students do not read the daily paper, but the school paper is read by all the students. They feel that it is especially their own, and notice the names in it. "Students do not buy my products," might be another reason given. Explain the influence of young people on their parents' buying; and the many parents and other adults who read the school paper, and appreciate the interest in the school displayed by the merchant who buys space.

Insurance firms, banks, and professional men may hesitate to buy space because they feel it would be of no benefit to them. The salesman could point out the value of keeping the name before the group involved. Many students who graduate may patronize these firms because of the good will engendered. Whether advertising space is sold or not, the salesman should thank the man to whom he is talking for the time he has been given, and remind him again of the service the school paper offers. Good advertisements pay off in immediate sales and good will. The student salesman should overlook neither of these. He should first contact firms who have or can build student trade, then branch out to the ones where more persuasion may be needed.

The personal appearance of the salesmen is important. They should be clean, neatly dressed, and well-groomed. The students who go out to sell advertising space are contacting business men. They should dress and act business-like. First impressions are important. A clean, neat, well-groomed boy or girl with a business-like attitude entering an office will impress a business man much more favorably than a dirty, sloppy, careless one. Impress the value of appearance on the sales force.

Practice selling with the sales force before sending them out. Even professional salesmen are given training courses. Some preparation is certainly helpful and necessary for these adolescents. This practice, for which they should dress as they will when actually selling, may give them the poise, self-confidence, and social grace that they lack. That this training is needed is evidenced by the fact that thirty per cent of the questionnaire respondents commented "More training is needed regarding solicitations."

Rates for advertising space in the high school paper should be determined by the circulation and its buying power. Evidently this phase of the publication has worked out satisfactorily, because to the question, "Do you approve of the rates charged?" not one advertiser objected.

"Is the advertisement attractively presented in the paper?" was the fourth question. Eighty per cent answered "Yes." The fifth question was, "Is the form of the advertisement changed often enough?" Here only forty per cent said "Yes." What do these answers indicate? It would seem that, when the advertisement is received, a great deal of thought and care must go into it, so that it is attractive and the customer is pleased. Too many schools stop there however. The form of the advertisement remains unchanged from issue to issue, and perhaps throughout the year. The advertiser is disappointed; he wants the form of the advertisement to be changed frequently, and it should be.

Business men pay for ideas; why not give them some with the advertisements? Appoint several members of the paper staff to change the advertisements at intervals. Visit the customer and see if he has some new item, he would like to see featured. Ask him for comments and suggestions. Student art, cartoons, and photographs can be used for variety. Use illustrations whenever possible. They catch the eye and lead into the written copy. The advertisement must "attract attention, arouse interest, stimulate desire, win conviction, and impel action."

"Do you think advertising in the high-school newspaper really sells your product?" was the last question on the questionnaire. Sixty per cent answered "Yes." What is the implication here? It is possible that the impression made on the advertiser by poorly trained salesmen for the school publication made a majority of them say they took the advertising space "just to help the kids out." Later a majority felt that the advertisement which they placed in the school paper did sell their product, but the poor impression of the "kids" that sold it remained.

THAT EXTRA ATTENTION

The school paper should not feel that its job is done when the advertisement is sold. Every effort should be made to "boost" the advertisers. Try to prove to the advertisers that it does pay to advertise in your paper. Make an effort to keep in touch with them for any changes they may want to make, or suggestions that they might have. Sometimes an advertisement that has to be cut out and presented to the store for the pur-

chase proves how many people read the advertising. Sometimes little "gimmicks" like placing a misspelled word or a student's name in an advertisement and challenging the students to find them call attention to the advertising section. A shopper's column is often interesting, and small advertisements could be placed here that did not want to buy more space. Special news and interesting features concerning your regular advertisers are included free. Business men appreciate this extra attention, and it pays off in cash.

IN CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this survey seems to indicate that the advertisers are sincerely interested in young people and the success of the high-school newspaper. They support it for various reasons and have only helpful suggestions to make. School journalism teachers and publications advisers should try to profit by these suggestions and train their sales force to feel the value of what they are selling. Impress upon them to be business-like in manner and appearance. Help them to practice selling and give them some tools to work with and some idea of what to expect. Build successful salesmen. This is part of the educational value of this activity. We want to please the advertiser in the high-school newspaper with the service we offer, the way this service is presented, and the "follow-up."

Pointed Paragraphs on English Education

HENRY RINGKAMP

TO AMERICAN educators interested in comparing elementary and secondary education with its counterpart in Great Britain these facts, figures and observations are presented. They are the result of a ten-day series of lectures given at Balliol College, Oxford, this past summer. Coupled with the lectures were visits to schools, interviews with headmasters, teachers, parents, and students

The compulsory school age in England is from five to fourteen years; a child may leave as soon as he is fifteen years' old.

Six and one-half million students are taught by 250,000 teachers, a ratio of 1:26 constitute the school community of Great Britain.

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Section 36 of the *Education Act of 1944* makes it the parent's responsibility for regular school attendance and instruction of their children from the mandatory ages of six to fourteen. The law's requirement is fulfilled even if this instruction is provided at home—a situation similar to this was not condoned by the United States Courts this past year.

The State provides the means for parents to educate their children. The Ministry of Education for Great Britain cooperates with the Local Education Authorities (LEA) in promoting education; with ministerial approval variation of pattern allowed.

In each Local Education Authority a sub-committee working as part of the County Council, has responsibility for Education. Her Majesty's Inspectors (HMI) provide the cooperative oil to effect rapport between the Ministry of Education and the sub-committee in charge of education in the counties.

Education in Great Britain has three progressive stages, primary and secondary which are compulsory, and further education.

The Local Education Authority's duty is efficient spiritual, moral, and mental development of students in the community. In all educational stages efficient and sufficient instruction must be given to the students. Her Majesty's Inspectors (HMI) use these two criteria when they visit schools for evaluation.

School Finances in 1958 derived forty per cent of its money from local taxation, sixty per cent from national taxation. In 1959 a Block Grant of money came from the National Treasury to the county council; the education sub-committee in each county now has to fight for educational funds.

England's School System roughly outlined is:

School	Ages
Nursery	2-3-4
Infant	5-6
Junior	7-8-9-10
Secondary	11-12-13-14
Grammar	15-16-17-18
Further Education	19 and beyond

Secondary Education is given in either the Grammar, Modern, Technical, Bi-Lateral, or Comprehensive School.

The Grammar School derives its student body from the students who successfully passed the eleven plus examination. Twenty-five per cent of the total school population are in the grammar school; fifty per cent who enter eventually graduate and enter the sixth form or the University.

Private Schools are now subject to the ministry of education. No age limit for entrance or leaving exists in this type of school.

Preparatory Schools, from ages eight through thirteen, prepare youngsters for the public (private) schools.

Public Schools, actually private schools, having an age range from thirteen to nineteen, are a prime student source for the Universities, have a 10:1 pupil-teacher ratio, and charges fees. Students from these schools patronize Oxford and Cambridge whereas modern secondary-school graduates patronize London University.

Further Education, always voluntary, covers professional and vocational training, is usually done by or through chartered societies, and can be full or part-time. Technical colleges provide this training. Evening non-credit classes in adult education with emphasis on crafts, skills, and aesthetics are also provided.

Religious Education is required by law and is supported by the State. Such schools can be voluntary or controlled. Some school buildings are owned by the Churches; where the "controlled" situation holds no expense falls on the churchmen or managers; the buildings belong to this voluntary body though the use is allowed to the county council; teachers' salaries in turn are the responsibility of the county council.

Collective worship, usually Anglican, *opens the school day*; a standing conference of local clergymen formulate the religious syllabus. In voluntary (controlled) religious schools, the agreed-on syllabus must be taught; in the voluntary (aided) schools there is freedom to teach their own religion. Parents have the right to withdraw their children from religious instruction if syllabus taught is counter to their belief.

Ancillary School Services include two or three medical inspections in a child's school life; bus transportation is provided in rural areas with a minimum charge (1s. 9 pence = 15¢) for milk and meals. In a boarding school, where a particular child need can only be so satisfied, recreational and social and physical training opportunities are provided.

Nineteen acres of land must be provided for a school of one thousand children; twelve acres suffice for schools with six hundred students.

The mentally defective children are provided for by the Health Departments; special education treatment is given in special or local schools for the blind, deaf, delicate, subnormal, emotionally disturbed, and epileptics.

"Streaming" is a term used for tracks, or levels of ability in English schools. Usually there are three or four streams (A, B, C, D) in the modern secondary school; student allocation to a stream is made by the staff.

The tripartite system of the English secondary-school system (grammar, modern, technical) originated with the Education Act of 1944. Before 1944 primary students remained in school until they were fourteen years of age; now secondary education is available to more students.

Despite the introduction of the modern secondary school in the Education Act of 1944 which has the avowed purpose of democratizing school opportunities, students who do not qualify for Grammar School entrance feel they are branded academically and socially.

The Modern Secondary School, which has the avowed purpose of accepting the non-accepted grammar school student, faces a tremendous

range in pupil ability, with IQ's ranging from seventy to one hundred twenty.

The Comprehensive Secondary School as well as the *Bi-Lateral School* attempts to answer the problem of segregation resulting from the Grammar School by accepting all students, no matter their objective or type of interest, by placing seventeen hundred to two thousand students under one roof, and putting them into their proper stream. Thus a Grammar and a Modern Secondary School may be found together.

Grammar Schools' selection is not determined by law, but according to *age, aptitude, and ability*. The Ministry of Education is working toward all schools having parity of esteem; however, parents of middle class children are ambitious for their children to enter grammar school. Of the twenty per cent who enter Grammar School, fifty per cent successfully complete it.

The Eleven Plus Examination time, to determine grammar school entrants is a time of tension—tutors are engaged, the press is full of advertisements of books, medicines, and cereals which will help students to pass the Eleven Plus examination. Schools give dummy tests, provide coaching; both schools and parents promise the successful ones valuable prizes; students wear charms hopeful of some kind of legerdemain assistance through this medium.

Psychologists find little cause for alarm at maladjustment in students who failed the grammar school entrance examination; more concern must be given to parents of children who have failed than the students themselves.

Three short tests constitute the *Eleven Plus Examination*, each three quarters of an hour long, dealing with verbal competency, general intelligence, and arithmetical reasoning. Tests are scored by panels of teachers; they are not machine-scored; no versions of the tests are available ahead of time; a short English essay is always a part of the test. The twenty per cent with top performances are selected for grammar school entrance.

The Socialist Party are advocates of the Comprehensive School, where they insist that homogeneous grouping of the talented (grammar school students), the average, and the slow-learner can live in a school community, obviating the snobbery, social and academic segregation attached to the gifted elite characteristic of grammar school students.

The Purpose of the Grammar School is to develop broad-minded specialists, who know how to work and also know how to use their leisure time. It is the door to the professions, to civil service, to higher levels of the armed services, to teaching engineering and scientific research, and to the Universities. Studies pursued in the Grammar School from the age of eleven until sixteen include: physics, chemistry, biology, mathematics, calculus, Latin, French, Spanish, geography, and history. Music, arts, mechanical drawing, and handicrafts may be taken and are usually discontinued after three years of study.

The G.C.E., *General Certificate of Education*, has two levels, the O, or ordinary level, and the A, or advanced level. The O level is taken after five years of grammar school study; the A level is given at the completion of grammar school in one of these three main groups: (a) *Classics* (Latin, Greek, ancient history); (b) *Sciences* (mathematics, physics, chemistry; sometimes botany and zoology are added); and (c) *Modern Studies* (history, English, French, German, economics, and geography).

Thomas Arnold, famous headmaster at Rugby, changed the French emphasis of teaching pure academics in the English independent schools to include character training of the students; in this he was influenced by the Jesuit tradition! Channeling adolescent energies and inclinations into sports and games, avoiding adult domination; organizing a boy-community, a Christian community—these were some of Arnold's ideas.

The *English Public School* is an independent non-profit making, charities' organization, incorporated under a charitable pattern or scheme. Fees received are administered by a Board of Governors for the betterment of the school. Usually these schools, which actually are private boarding schools, are directed by the Roman Catholic or Anglican churches, and place special emphasis on character training.

Emphasis is given extracurricular activity in the public schools. It takes the form of debates, trips, scouting, publications, and inter-school cricket and rowing competition. Public school authorities claim individual and group responsibility are thus formed; political opinions and impressions are formed.

The *House System*, where a group of students of various grades or forms live under a senior student house-master or (proctor), is in honor in the public schools of England. The house-master looks to the spiritual and moral development of his charges in the close community living. Critics claim the system perpetuates a class structure for two per cent of the population based entirely on wealth.

By and large, sons of the ruling class do not use the state educational system. Men in the House of Commons, University teachers, men of property and influence in England boast of graduating from Eton, Harrow, Exeter, Rugby, etc. This can have and has had a bad effect on the country in a situation which the Socialists are trying to remedy by so improving standards in the state educational system that, in buying a public school education, you are buying a better education. Four-hundred fifty pounds at Exeter, forty-five pounds at a grammar school for the same education gives you a comparison of prices charged at the two schools.

Home and School Associations are associations in name only in England's secondary schools. The headmaster is King of the Castle, student's teachers are vassals; parents are told, not consulted on matters academic. Twice a year, parent conferences, unilateral, not consultative are held; assistance with a garden party, assistance at a dramatic presentation or

holiday observance are the sum total of parent-teacher contact, or better, headmaster-parent contact.

The Modern Secondary-School Curriculum—an eight-year program, covering ages from eleven to nineteen—is interesting from the viewpoints of selectivity or choice, sequence, and repetition of subjects.

Modern Secondary-School Curriculum

Type	Years	Subjects
ADVANCED	8	Modern Language—English—Engineering—Domestic Subjects
OPTIONS	7	Agriculture—Maths—Social Studies—Art—Building
16-19 Yrs. of Age	6	Classics—Sciences—Commerce—Crafts
GENERAL	5	Academic (Arts)—Academic (Sciences)—Engineering—Domestic Subjects
Plus BIASES	4	Technical—Commercial—Crafts—Practical—Remedial
13-16 Yrs. of Age	3	Provisional—Biases (Choices)—leading to 4 and 5
FOUNDATION	2	Physical Education—English—French—History—Music
11-13 Yrs. of Age	1	Religion—Maths—General Science—Geography—Arts and Crafts

Three Types of Universities are found in England.

1. *Oxford and Cambridge* (Oxbridge) where the 20 or more colleges forming the Universities are autonomous, have their own income and internal government, their own fellows who teach and are paid by the government. These are the equivalent of America's Ivy League Colleges.

2. *The Provincial or Red Brick Universities*—situated in large centers of population, have a local vocational interest for existence; e.g., Leeds (textiles), Sheffield (steel), Birmingham (brewing). These schools are day schools.

3. The Residential Universities, such as Reading, Leicester, and Southampton, where students eat, sleep, wear distinctive gowns, say their Latin grace at meals. Each hall depends on the University for finance; no hall does any teaching. Fifteen hundred is the average student population.

The word is *academic* for the range of the British Universities. Liberal education is stressed more than the practical or vocational as found in American Universities. "People are prepared for the service of God in Church or States"; "Latin is the key to cultural and liberal education" are explicitly stated as two purposes of higher education in Great Britain.

Contrasts evident to this observer in United Kingdom and United States universities were:

1. State universities in the United States may be entered by any high-school graduate, evidence of our democratic way of life; the state legislature, which supplies the moneys, tells the universities what to do without consultation of the faculty. The drop-out rate in State Universities is at least fifty per cent.

2. Private American universities, with their own standards of admission, with complete responsibility for faculty salaries, must raise their own money; usually the private university president spends four fifths of his time raising needed funds.

3. The United Kingdom universities are somewhere in between these two situations above—Reading University, a provincial University, receives seventy-five per cent of its money from the national treasury; however no control from the Ministry of Education is even slightly evident. The minority, an exclusive one, profits by the United Kingdom university opportunity.

4. Moneys to United Kingdom universities, to the extent of thirty million pounds, are made by the University Grant's Committee annually.

The dual system of English schools, denominational schools on the one hand, local authorities on the other, both supported by public funds, is a great tribute to the keen sense of democracy as understood by the English. Frequent Parliament debates concerning public moneys being assigned to propagation of Catholicism, Anglicanism, or Judaism all terminate not in diminution of aid, but in confirmation and addition to denominational schools. A far cry from the American situation for federal and state aid to non-public schools.

The Minister of Education in Great Britain, with cabinet rank and with especial powers for the allocation of money for "education, health, and defense" has his work described "to maintain standards, promote education, its progress and development, effective execution of local education authorities, varied, comprehensive to all areas, control and direction where necessary"—Education Act of 1944, sec. 1. Actually the two main functions of the Minister are to be partner in insuring good national standards of education, and to be an evaluator and administrator of national education.

Her Majesty's Inspectors, functionaries of the Ministry of Education, are the eyes and ears of this department. The District Inspector cooperates with the Chief Education officer of the local education authority, assists in planning buildings, advises concerning the curriculum, and is liaison between the Minister and Local Education Authority Officials. The local Education Authority, actually the Education Committee of the City Council, has power to carry out its duties and to exercise its assigned powers in everything except in raising *rates*, or taxes. The committee employs a Chief Education Officer.

Phases of work done by the Education Committee relate to *primary* (nursery and infant) education; *secondary*; *further education*; *special services* (health, transportation, school lunches); *accounts*; *staffing*; *scholarships and benefits*; and awards (teacher training grants, educational maintenance).

The Chief Education Officer is an adviser and interpreter to the Education Committee; he does not direct the curriculum, he carries out decisions of the Education Committee, he assigns staff to various schools in the country or district, he attempts to effect rapport with headmasters for school improvement.

Teachers in Great Britain are trained in the universities where they secure a degree, or in teacher-training colleges where no degree is demanded; in both situations emphasis is first on knowledge of subject matter and secondly on pedagogy. The graduate of the university spends three years in subject matter study as against two years of study in the teacher training college; no study is made of pedagogy, except experimentally in the university; two years of study of pedagogy is done in college. Since the passage of the 1944 Education Act, *University Institutes of Education* have been set up, with the avowed purpose of proving that the teaching profession has its apex at the university level. Four functions of the Institute are:

1. To supervise initial training, at both the university and teacher college level
2. To further the training of teachers by providing inservice training of teachers in the LEA, in independent schools, and in the armed forces
3. To encourage research and investigation
4. To serve as a professional center to be the eyes and ears for all teachers, both those in the field and those in the universities and teachers' colleges.

A few summary statements which impressed the writer concerning the English educational system are these:

1. *The selection* at the early age of eleven of the academically talented student.
2. *The independence* of the Local Education Authorities from the Ministry of Education.
3. *The sacrosanct*, almost ivory-tower isolation of the headmaster separating him from any home-school relations.
4. *The financial and moral support* given by the Ministry of Education and Local Education Authorities to religious instruction and religious or denominational schools. It is much more in the way of encouragement than the lip-service given to moral and spiritual values in American public schools.
5. *Despite all efforts to the contrary*, grammar school education is still the mark of educational distinction sought for and prized by students and particularly English parents. A generation or two will have to pass before modern secondary-school attendance is accepted as equivalent education.

6. Entrance into and graduation from the independent "public" schools for children of the rich who cannot or care not to qualify for entrance into the grammar or modern secondary school is another mark of social segregation or distinction still in honor in England.
7. Where emphasis today in the United States is for training the academically talented, English schools have been existing in this tradition for centuries; where, since the American revolution, education has been for the masses in the United States, in England since 1944 a new concern is prevalent for democratizing educational opportunities.

Qualities a Test Does Not Measure

JOHN O. REED

THIS writer, in seeking to crystallize his thoughts as he surveys high-school goals of education, places the premium factor on the *desire* of the American student.

This nation is seeking to identify the prime students in the secondary schools today. This process is grounded on a battery of tests that seek to evaluate the individual's ability and innate talents. (The factor that has long personified the American way—the quality of diligence—is being regrettably relegated to the background by these methods. This quality of ambition, or, as I have stated, the *desire*, is the hidden factor that sparks individual drive, and makes use of personal perseverance of each student.)

This country's educational system is based on the freedom of the individual to grow in learning and to provide service with his particular drive or effort. We can through tests identify a tremendous potential in an individual, but we cannot press the button to accelerate the stimulus unless we direct attention to the real foundations of American education.

The foundation and the key to stimulus of the American student is the really professional teacher. The good teacher will recognize in the work of the student qualities of desire that reflect critical thinking based on an alert and probing mind. The good teacher recognizes that the qualities of educational excellence must be nurtured and developed, and this can be done only by a stimulus that creates desire.

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This cannot be measured at a certain time in the student's growth pattern with tests at the junior or senior year. This, at times, may not be identifiable at any time in the school years. The development of any one individual differs in maturation. The cleavage of the testing program that attempts to separate is in direct conflict with sound educational policy. We lose the real leadership and outstanding students if we underline and emphasize exclusively indicators such as the intelligence quotient and verbal and mathematical ability ratios. The human mind is not that simply divided, and we continually deceive ourselves if we believe only in this type of measurement.

The measures we must not lose sight of are summed in the principle of education for all, not for the select few. This principle is a God-given heritage and one this nation's youth has perpetuated in two world wars. Hence it is the right of every citizen to seek improvement in his understanding of service to his fellow man through education.

Let us think long and critically before we accept principles that seek leadership only in the top fifteen per cent and allow the unexploited group who make up the middle quarter to be drained off as residue. Beware of the cold figures that measure the use of words or the factoring of sums, but fail to recognize the qualities of human ambition that lift men from the ranks when touched by responsibilities that bring out the real hidden talents.

Let this nation continue to be founded on the abilities of all, and that any American can still lift himself to greatness if he has the desire within.

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A Study of Some Administrative Practices in Summer High Schools

JOHN E. CODWELL

THE summer high-school program has been an interesting development. Though the organization and management of the summer high school must, by necessity, show some diminution when compared with the nine- or ten-month secondary school, consistent care must be exercised to be sure that the calibre of learning in the summer high school is not decreased by any practices encouched in this diminution. Yeager attests to the necessity of eternal vigilance in safe-guarding the instructional standards of the summer high school in these words: "Care must be taken, however, that instruction is of a sufficiently high quality. If it is understood that 'everybody passes,' the purposes can hardly be described as having been sufficiently achieved."¹

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY²

The purpose of this study was three-fold: (1) to ascertain the nature of certain organizational and management practices in the summer session of a selected number of secondary schools; (2) to analyze these practices in the light of their contributions to an effective learning program; and (3) to offer suggestions for the improvement of these practices should the need for such become evident.

In addition to the three-fold purpose stated it was felt that complete or partial answers to the following questions could accrue from a study of certain administrative practices in the summer high school: (1) Is a continuous school program extending over a calendar year an asset or a deterrent to the education of the students concerned? (2) What length of summer term would best serve the needs of youth? (3) Who should attend summer school and what type of curriculum would best serve those attending? and (4) Should summer schools be conducted on a cost-to-student basis or should they be tuition-free?

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Three limitations of this study are acknowledged. In the first place, only three states represented the geographical boundaries from which data were secured—Virginia, Louisiana, and Texas. In the second place,

¹ William A. Yeager. *Administration and the Pupil*. New York: Harper and Brothers. 1949. P. 210.

² The author is greatly indebted to his graduate students in *Secondary School Organization and Management* at Texas Southern University for their assistance in compiling the data for this study.

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a limited number of school systems within these states were included—four from Virginia, five from Louisiana, and twenty-two from Texas. In the third place, only certain administrative practices and procedures in the summer schools of these systems were considered.

METHODOLOGY

The data for this study were secured through questionnaires sent to forty-eight school systems in three states—Texas, Louisiana, and Virginia. Of the forty-eight questionnaires distributed, thirty-one, or 64 per cent, were returned. All of the secondary schools in these forty-eight school systems were fully accredited by the Southern Association of Secondary Schools. A frequency analysis of responses received was the statistical technique employed in the interpretation of the data.

WHAT SOME OF THE RELATED LITERATURE REVEALED

As contributory as the program of the summer high school appears to be, few studies have been made relative to its organization and management. Bush³ found that (1) summer schools range in length from four to ten weeks, (2) the credit earned was one-half unit to two units, (3) and students do as good work in summer as in regular school. Hoffman⁴ concluded that the summer school has the following advantages over the regular school: (1) selected teachers, (2) small classes, (3) separate classes for advanced pupils and repeaters, (4) longer class periods, and (5) a short day consisting of morning hours. Ware⁵ stated that frequently enrollment in the summer school is limited to pupils who failed in one or more subjects during the regular school year and who wish to "make up" work, and to those who have been recommended to take advanced courses so that they may progress more rapidly than at the normal rate.

It is the opinion of Vanderslice⁶ that in few cities are regular high-school conditions maintained during summer sessions. Questioning the value of the long summer vacation, Buster⁷ opined that in a number of large cities there have been proposals for the all-year school at the high-school level. In a study of the differences between summer and regular high school, Duell and Kenet⁸ drew these conclusions: (1) in the regular

³ Ralph H. Bush, "Current Practices in Summer School," *The School Review*, Vol. 32, 1924, 143-146.

⁴ David Hoffman, "Status of Summer High Schools in Cities of More Than 100,000 Population," *The School Review*, Vol. 33, 1925, 107-114.

⁵ C. M. Ware, "Summer Session in High Schools," *The School Review*, Vol. 38, No. 3, 1931, 59-60.

⁶ H. R. Vanderslice, "Place and Purpose of the All-year School," *The Texas Outlook*, September 1932, 112-114.

⁷ N. E. Buster, "The Long Vacation Is the Bunk," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, Vol. 7, No. 5, 1933, 281-284.

⁸ Henry W. and Maurice Kenet, "A Study of the Comparative Achievement of Summer High School and Regular High School Students," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXXVII, March, 1945, 509-521.

session, class periods were shorter, semesters longer, more courses permitted, co-curricular activities were plentiful, and holidays numerous; (2) in the summer sessions, high-school students were older and more variable.

In an unpublished study of 398 summer schools in the North Central Association, Romine⁹ found the following: (1) summer schools operate six to nine weeks; (2) length of class period was divided evenly between sixty minutes, ninety minutes, and one hundred and twenty minutes; (3) the scheduled meeting time for classes ranged from five to twenty periods per week. Confining much of their reporting about the summer high school to personnel, Edmondson, Roemer, and Bacon¹⁰ felt that for the sake of efficiency and the welfare of the program, the staff of teachers should probably be made up of the instructors of the regular term, but strictly on a voluntary basis. Douglas¹¹ concurred with the point of view of other investigators when he claimed that the typical summer high school should operate from six to eight weeks.

FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

Twenty-seven, or 88 per cent, of the school systems conducting summer high-school sessions offered many of the same courses and gave the same type of academic credit as was given during the regular school session. The amount of credit that could be earned in 88 per cent of the summer school systems was governed by state and/or local laws. In nineteen, or 71 per cent, of the school systems reporting, "failing" students were permitted to take the maximum of credit. In twenty-four, or 89 per cent, of the school systems, "failing" students were permitted to carry the maximum credit load—conditioned in some systems by the inclusion of "repeater" courses.

All of the nineteen school systems, reporting relative to financing the summer high-school program, assessed a fee for attending. In fifteen, or 75 per cent, of the school systems, the fees collected were expected to finance the *total* program. In four, or 25 per cent, the summer high-school program was *partially* financed by student fees. The fees ranged from \$10 to \$20 per half-unit. Most of the schools, nine or 60 per cent, charged \$15 per half-unit.

The maximum amount of credit a student might earn ranged from one-half to two units. Nine school systems permitted two units; eight permitted 1½ units; eight permitted 1 unit; two permitted ½ unit.

⁹ Stephen Romine, "An Analysis of the Summer School Sessions Reports of High Schools for 1948." An Unpublished Study, p. 14.

¹⁰ J. B. Edmondson, Joseph Roemer, and Francis I. Bacon. *The Administration of the Modern Secondary School*. New York: The Macmillan Company. 1955. Pp. 122-123.

¹¹ Harl R. Douglas. *Modern Administration of Secondary Schools*. New York: Ginn and Company. 1954. P. 567.

Twenty-six, or 97 per cent, of the school systems permit all students—gifted, average, and “failing”—to attend.

Twenty-three, or 85 per cent, of the school systems conduct summer school on a one-term basis. Fifteen, or 56 per cent, of the summer school systems operate over an eight-week period. Six, or 23 per cent, use a ten-week period. Only two, or seven per cent, of the school systems conduct a two-term, 12 week summer school session. Twenty-three, or 85 per cent, of the school systems—the largest number—use the five-day week-time plan. Four, or 26 per cent, employ a six-day week-time plan.

CONCLUSIONS

Within the limits of this study it seems reasonable to conclude that:

1. Summer high schools are conducted generally, in the same manner as are the regular nine- or ten-months high schools.

2. Democracy of attendance is the practice, as practically all of the school systems permit all students—gifted, average, and failing—to attend.

3. In none of the school systems of this study was the summer high-school program budgeted and operated by tax funds. All of the systems charged students to attend, and these fees partially or totally financed the summer school program. Such a practice raises this question: “Is the policy of charging students a fee to attend summer school and permitting regular session students to attend at no tuition cost compatible with democratic principles of education?”

4. It appears that some attention needs to be given to the maximum amount of credit a summer high-school student is permitted to take. Two precautions in this connection are herein stated: (a) *average* and *failing* students must be protected from taking a load beyond their academic and social potential; (b) permitting students to take excessive loads in summer school will unduly accelerate their stay in high school.

5. Eight weeks seem to be the preferred time plan for summer school attendance. Assuming that this permits an “in between” time following (a) close of regular school and opening of summer school, and (b) close of summer school and opening of regular school, this appears to be most conducive to good instruction. It would appear that in proportion to an extension of the eight-week summer period, there is a concomitant reduction in the effectiveness of the instructional program.

Preble's Freshmen Orientation Program

EDWARD J. BLECHA

ON JUNE 27, 1960, Preble High School began a very ambitious and comprehensive expansion of its guidance program. The main feature of this expanded program was a series of counseling sessions held during the summer with each prospective new student-freshman or transfer. These conferences, which were a minimum of 50 minutes in length, brought together, usually for the first time, the new student, the parents, and the guidance director, and laid a firm foundation of mutual understanding and concern.

THE FIRST PHASE OF THE PROGRAM

Students are particularly anxious and nervous upon entering, for the first time, the strange new world of high school. To help lessen this tension and to impart essential information, the guidance director explained and discussed all phases of high-school life.

During these conferences, all pertinent points were discussed and necessary written forms were completed.

1. The student completed counselor sheets and the health and guidance data sheet with parent's help.

2. With parent and student, the guidance director made out the current year's class program plus tentatively making out the full four-year schedule, using the student's last years report card and standardized test results as a guide.

3. Test results from the testing program given earlier were explained and evaluated.

4. Details of the first day of school were outlined.

5. Explained fee system—what payments are required and why, and which are optional.

6. Explained the school's report card grading system, unsatisfactory reports, and poor study habit reports.

7. Explained the importance of regular attendance, and what to do if absence does occur.

8. Explained the bus transportation system as it affects each student.

9. Explained the school's method of ability grouping and why and how each student is placed in any one of the tracks.

10. Answered any questions asked by parent or student.

Some of the wealth of benefits that were derived from these sessions are listed below.

1. The school is able to have all freshmen and transfer students' records completed by opening day. Without this summer system, this could not be completed until about five or six weeks after school opens.

Edward J. Blecha is Guidance Director of Preble High School, 241 South Danz Avenue, Green Bay, Wisconsin. Enrollment: grades 9-12; 763.

2. There is a mutual understanding of the total school picture on the part of the student, parent, school, and the guidance office.

3. Individual counseling supplemented testing result information which helped us discover the academically talented students at the earliest possible moment.

4. These conferences aided in discovering early those students who had isolated skills.

5. These conferences confirmed standardized test results that students vary tremendously in ability and that provisions and arrangements must be made to take care of them.

6. This conference enabled the guidance director, the student, and the parent to become better acquainted in a pleasant situation.

7. It helped in breaking down the student's natural reluctance to ask assistance with his problems.

8. Students achieved a better understanding of how they measure up to established standards.

9. Students developed more awareness of requirements and expectations.

10. The guidance office discovered students who needed more extensive counseling as soon as school began.

11. The student and parents realized that the school was interested in each student as an individual.

Parents were first notified of the summer counseling program by an article in the local paper, followed by a personal letter to each parent. About ten days prior to the scheduled conference, another notice was sent informing them of the exact date and time. The day before the meeting, a phone call was made to confirm the appointment. Two hundred and twenty-five out of a possible 240 appointments were made and kept. Fathers attended almost 40 per cent of the meetings. Many came with great sacrifice or inconvenience. Only fifteen parents did not respond for one reason or another. Parents were practically unanimous in their praise of the conferences.

THE SECOND PHASE OF THE PROGRAM

Another phase of Preble High School's continuing orientation program was the special orientation day set aside just for freshmen. This important first day of school started at 8:45 in the morning and continued until 3:30. Buses made their usual runs, which enabled the freshmen to acquaint themselves with the routes in an unhurried manner, and without the embarrassment of making a mistake in the presence of upper classmen. As most of the new students had already personally met the guidance director, during the summer conferences, it was agreed that he should welcome them at the general meeting, and introduce the principal, Peter C. Hamel.

After some general announcements and introductions, the students were guided to their home rooms by members of the student council. The freshmen were given their class schedules in the home rooms and then started a program of shortened classes. Just before each class ended, the guidance director would explain over the PA system the general activity

for the next period. A novel feature of this orientation day enabled these students to use a 45-minute period to explore quietly the entire building. Also during this time they familiarize themselves with their class route to and from each class. The next day of school found practically no lost freshmen. All the freshmen stayed for lunch that day, and ate with the entire faculty.

THE THIRD PHASE OF THE PROGRAM

This part of the continuing program at Preble deals with general orientation and the subject fields orientation. This area of the program was suggested by John David, Preble's superintendent of schools. A 35-minute period is set aside each day for all students, which is called the activity period. One day each week is set aside for either group guidance or individual counseling by the student's home-room teacher. During three other days, students can attend club meetings, and the other day is reserved for assembly programs. No freshman may join any club until the second semester at Preble. So during two of the days reserved for club meetings, the freshmen orientation program is continued. The opening sessions dealt with how a freshman can fit into the guidance program, proper dress, acceptable manners, and an explanation of the rules and regulations of the school. After these come the subject fields orientation programs.

In the subject fields orientation, each academic department has one or more capable teachers discuss what is covered in the department, how it is related to other fields of learning, how it fits in with the over-all school philosophy, and the values a student can expect to receive by studying in that field.

The prime objectives of the talks are to create a better understanding of the various areas for the student, and how all fields are related. These are overviews—not outlines of what is taught in class. Rather, they are summaries of values and historical importance of each area in our total culture.

In carrying out the objectives of the orientation, a variety of techniques are employed including the use of audio-visual aids, student assistants, or any method which helps bring alive for the student the material to be covered.

THE FOURTH PHASE OF THE PROGRAM

The special subject orientation lasts until early December, when the fourth phase begins. Here upper classmen under the direction of a faculty club sponsor explain to the freshmen the school clubs and their activities. This includes who is eligible, functions of the organization, expected results, values to be received, and responsibilities of the participating active student. The freshmen now have a better understanding of the club's activities, and make their decisions wisely. All students are encouraged to become active in at least one club. Generally speaking,

we limit them to two. The orientation program formally ends about the middle of January. Because semester exams are next on the immediate horizon, Preble High dispenses with formal orientation and gives the freshmen an opportunity for extra study time to prepare themselves for the semester exams.

RESULTS OF THE PROGRAM

Has this program been successful? It has been even more successful than one dared hope. To have any kind of a successful program, one must have the active support of the entire school environment. This includes everyone from the top to the bottom. The Preble School Board gives complete support to the total guidance program and operates on the philosophy that what is best for the individual should become a part of the school program. Without the help, suggestions and encouragement of the superintendent, it would have been extremely difficult to implement and develop this program. The principal is practically another guidance man. The same philosophy has been accepted by the entire faculty. Without support from the administration and the faculty, almost any guidance program will flounder and eventually collapse. We at Preble are most fortunate! The students are fortunate because, through this program, they are receiving much more help than they would normally get under most other guidance programs; the parents are fortunate because they know their tax dollars for education are well spent and because their children are benefiting greatly from it; the faculty is fortunate because the students are much more receptive to teaching; and we, the guidance people, are fortunate because we have the grand opportunity to use our guidance training the way all guidance personnel desire.

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Ninth Grade Orientation for Senior High School

U. BERKLEY ELLIS

THIS year a joint effort of the Franklin D. Roosevelt Junior High School and the Delhaas High School staffs was initiated to create greater emphasis upon orientating ninth-grade students for the transition to high school. The goal of this program is to accomplish this transition by presenting to the ninth-grade student a more comprehensive introduction to Delhaas High School's—(1) curricular offerings, (2) student body, (3) staff, and (4) building and facilities.

Impetus for the improvement of the ninth-grade students high-school orientation program was the requests of the teachers and the counselors who have worked with these students in the past and have felt the need for a more comprehensive program. The initial step was a planning meeting of the guidance counselors held in September.

One of the first steps was to discuss the high-school course offering and to establish common agreements upon student selections of electives and special subjects. Then it was necessary to set deadlines to meet budget and scheduling requirements. At this point, it was possible to outline an orientation program divided into these three areas—curricular, co-curricular, and building and facilities.

Curricular. Understanding the curricular offerings of the high school and making the choice which will prepare the student for his future are two most important phases of the ninth-grade orientation. Preliminary plans were made to include the following: vocational unit, career day, course description assemblies, and visits to Delhaas High School.

Vocational Unit. To aid the students to acquire an understanding of the various occupations and professions, a "Vocational Unit" was included in the ninth-grade social studies course of study four years ago at Benjamin Franklin Junior High School. This unit was designed to direct the student in the study of the advantages, disadvantages, preparation, type of work, and opportunities presented by the various vocations. It starts him to thinking of what steps he must take to prepare himself for his post-school interest.

It was decided to begin the Vocational Unit at Franklin D. Roosevelt Junior High School in September and to follow a staggered schedule for the ninth-grade sections. The purpose for this plan was two-fold—First, it relieved the pressure of large numbers of students wishing to use the library's resource materials; and second, it insured the completion of the unit in December, which is before course selection in January.

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Career Day. To follow up the study of the Vocational Unit, the high-school staff planned a Career Day for December. The ninth-grade students were invited to attend this activity and received many advantages from this activity. They visited the Delhaas building and became acquainted with the location of the offices, the library, the auditorium, the cafeteria, the gymnasium, and the room numbering system. For the majority of these students, this was their first trip within the walls of the school. It was a true example of learning through experience.

The career conferences attended that day broadened their understanding of the individual professions and occupations they had studied. Here they met a person who is actively involved in a particular career area and they heard, firsthand, of the advantages, disadvantages, preparation, and opportunities of the occupation or profession of their choice.

Having previously studied the career areas, the student was able to direct some very intelligent and inquiring questions at the consultants. Some, like the one asked of the truck driving consultant, were humorous. "Do the drivers get to keep the green stamps when they fill up at a gasoline station?"

This was an opportunity for the ninth-grade student to associate for a full morning with the high-school students he will meet next year. He was able to make friends, to exchange views, and to take a place alongside the high-school student in the conference discussions. It also offered him an opportunity to meet some of the teachers to whom he will be assigned next year.

COURSE DESCRIPTION ASSEMBLIES

Two assembly days were scheduled for the ninth-grade students to hear a description of the courses presented at the Delhaas High School and the Bucks County Technical School. This activity was planned for American Education Week held in November and parents were invited to attend. We were very pleased to have close to a hundred parents take advantage of this invitation. The family, when it understands the high-school course offerings, is able to help the student make a wiser selection.

The ninth grade was divided into three assembly groups, relative to the three reading level groupings employed for junior high-school sectioning. This arrangement encouraged and allowed for more individual questioning than was received in previous years when the entire class attended such assemblies. Also, the speakers were able to place more emphasis upon the curricular areas that the various achievement groups have selected in the past.

From Delhaas High School came students representing the three courses; General, Academic, and Business. Each student spoke of his personal experiences and told what vocations he felt his course was preparing him to enter upon completion of high school. This explanation included remarks concerning the subjects and the work done in these areas.

A Chinese once said, "A picture is worth a thousand words." But we would like to offer the statement that, "A student's explanation to another student is worth ten adults' attempts to do same." The closeness to the experience, the frankness of their answers and statements, and simply talking one another's language, provides the high-school student a decided advantage over adults in this situation.

An administrator and guidance counselor joined the assembly to support the students in answering the more technical questions of course selection. This allowed students of the ninth grade to meet three of the important persons they should know when they enter a new school. Another similar assembly was scheduled for personnel of the Bucks County Technical School to explain the purpose and the curriculum of this rather recent addition to our students' educational facilities.

VISITATION

Students who indicate an interest in attending the Technical School visited the school early in January. This allowed them to inspect the facilities and to observe the activities of each course offered by the school. They had ample opportunity to speak with faculty and students to receive answers for the type of questions which will help them decide if they wish to select one of these courses.

In the school year 1959-60, the "Introduction to General Business" course was transferred back to the junior high school. This provides the ninth-grade student an introduction to the business course before he selects it for the tenth grade. To reinforce the above experience of the "Introduction to General Business" course, it was requested at the planning meeting that these students be allowed to visit and to observe the Delhaas business classes in action. One teacher from each high school met and planned this visit.

One section of junior high-school students visited each day—the typing, stenography, bookkeeping, and office practice classes for a half period. They received an explanation of the course contents and activities. Students were allowed time to ask questions of the teachers and of the students presently attending these classes. They returned to their business class at the junior high school with a more comprehensive understanding of a business course.

CO-CURRICULAR

In many ways, the junior high school offers a large number of the activities sponsored by the high school. However, there are some activities which are truly high school in nature such as class trips, year books, ring dances; others are more extensive in their experiences and require more time of the student than did a similar junior high-school activity.

A co-curricular assembly is planned for the spring. Student leaders explain the co-curricular offerings of the high school and describe the more involved award system and social life of the high school.

Our ninth grade has had the opportunity to observe one of the high school's dramatic productions. They were invited to attend a special showing of the senior class play, "The Diary of Anne Frank." The students have also been offered special price tickets to Delhaas' athletic events. Many have taken advantage of this privilege.

Advantages of This Program. Many are the advantages that can be realized from the program described above.

1. It presents a meaningful situation for the senior high-school and junior high-school faculties to cooperatively plan experiences for students.

2. Students and faculty become aware that we are part of a team that the "joint" in the Delhaas Joint Schools represents.

3. The ninth-grade student becomes better acquainted with the high school that he is to attend next year. This should insure a smoother and healthier transition from junior to senior high school for the student.

4. Last, it aids the ninth-grade student to make a wiser and more sound choice of the course to be followed during his three years in senior high school.

As one can see, a great deal of planning, meeting, and cooperative action is necessary by teachers, guidance personnel, administrators, parents, and students to carry out what many believe is a simple transfer from junior to senior high school.

Interdependence of Guidance Services at the Various Levels

ANTHONY C. RICCIO

JOSEPH H. MAGUIRE

IN THIS article we shall try to point out that, although the basic principles of the guidance movement can be applied to guidance services at the elementary, secondary, and college levels, the guidance services most appropriate for given levels are determined by factors outside the movement itself. That is, guidance services are deemed appropriate or inappropriate in terms of the manner in which they relate to the developmental age of the individuals to be served; the expectations that have been posited by school influentials—administrators, teachers, parents, community leaders, students, etc.—and prevailing trends in the broad

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societal sphere. Now, we assume that all readers are in agreement on the following premises which bear vitally on the interdependence of guidance services.

1. Guidance is for *all* students—the bright, the slow, the shy, the over-aggressive.

2. Guidance is for *all* school levels—from the kindergarten to the college.

3. Guidance is primarily developmental in nature; a guidance program which aims at assisting each youth to realize his optimal potential, will, in large part, obviate the need for remedial and preventive guidance.

Granted these premises, it is obvious that guidance services must be interdependent if there is not to be a needless duplication of effort and if guidance services are to result in self-insight rather than chaos. Because guidance services are most prevalent at the secondary-school level, we will demonstrate the manner in which guidance services at the secondary-school level are different from guidance services at the elementary-school and college levels by emphasizing the impact that societal forces have upon guidance services at the various levels.

ELEMENTARY VS. SECONDARY

1. *School organization.* The organizational differences that exist between the elementary and secondary school lead to a major difference in the extent to which the classroom teacher is capable of understanding all students as individuals. Since the secondary-school teacher sees a student, as a rule, but once a day, this relationship is rather superficial in comparison with that of the elementary-school teacher who sees the student for a much greater portion of the school day. True, there are exceptions to this rule, but in general the elementary-school teacher knows his students much better—or is potentially capable of knowing his students much better—than his secondary counterpart. If the elementary teacher takes advantage of this opportunity, obviously he can provide the school counselor with anecdotal material or information on behavioral patterns that will be tremendously useful. The secondary teacher, on the other hand, can provide such information only for a select number of students, and very often these students are those who impede the learning process. School organization also influences the number of alternatives available to a counselor in making decisions concerning the welfare of clients. Unless the elementary school in which a counselor is working is unusually large, he can never use environmental manipulation as a solution to a behavioral problem—whereas this is a common practice in secondary schools. Here, then, are two examples in which guidance services and practices are influenced by a factor outside of the guidance movement; namely, school organization.

2. *Differentiated curriculum.* Another force which influences guidance practice that is beyond the reach of the counselor is the curriculum.

The elementary-school child takes whatever all other elementary-school children have to take. When the curriculum is differentiated, as in the case of reading groups, the elementary-school student is *told* that he will read with the robins, or the bluebirds; he himself cannot decide to be a sparrow. But the secondary-school student *does* have a choice with respect to curriculum, and he is often at odds with his teachers who feel that he is college material and should not be wasting time in commercial or shop courses or, conversely, that, because of his low mentality, he should be taking non-college preparatory courses. The elementary-school counselor is spared the problems attendant upon course selection, whereas the secondary-school counselor spends a disproportionate amount of his time in such activity.

3. *Psychological development of clients.* From the psychological point of view, elementary-school students differ considerably from secondary-school students. The focus of psychological efforts at the elementary level is primarily related to making a young child feel secure in a non-familial society. At the junior high-school level, the emphasis is on self-expression and exploration; and in the high school the emphasis is on peer relationships, especially heterosexual relationships. Needless to say, the concerns to be handled by counselors at the various levels will be greatly influenced by the psychological development of clients. Here, then, is still another area in which the work of the counselor is decided by forces beyond his control. But the manner in which counselors and teachers at lower grade levels help children master their developmental tasks will most certainly influence the work of upper-grade counselors. These developmental tasks, as outlined by Havighurst (1), fall into three general categories: those brought about by physical maturation, the pressures exerted by the cultural processes, and the values and aspirations of the emerging personality. Although the school counselor can do little about the first of these three sources of developmental tasks, he can most certainly aid the student to interpret the cultural milieu and to acquire a realistic level of aspiration, and, in so doing, eventually achieve new levels of excellence in daily behavior.

4. *Concept of time.* Related to the student's psychological development is his concept of time. The elementary-school student views time as NOW. The secondary-school student is capable of viewing time from both a *present* and a *future* orientation (6). These differences are important to the manner in which certain counseling techniques might be employed by elementary and secondary counselors. The elementary-school counselor might be more prone—and justifiably so—to employ reassurance and other emotional palliatives, whereas the secondary-school counselor must help the counselee to learn how to make realistic decisions with long-term consequences, especially in the realm of educational and vocational choice. It appears to us that the dimension of time and its consequences make the job of the secondary-school counselor far more

difficult than that of the elementary-school counselor—but, paradoxically, the elementary-school counselor must, because of the child's conception of time, produce and produce rapidly if he is to maintain the faith and trust of the child. The evaluation of the secondary-school counselor by his clients generally does not take place until the clients have left the school for the farm, the factory, or the college. In many cases, this delayed evaluation saves counselors embarrassing moments.

5. *Teachers' perceptions of guidance.* There is considerable evidence that elementary- and secondary-school teachers have different conceptions as to which students are most in need of guidance and the kind of guidance services from which the students can profit. Mangan (3) has indicated that both secondary- and elementary-school teachers view guidance services as being most applicable to students with difficulty rather than to students who are achieving well but who are not doing as much as might be expected of them. He noted further that secondary teachers strongly recommended guidance services of an intensive nature for students who had academic difficulties. Riccio and Wehmeyer (7) have suggested that the elementary-secondary dimension is a greater discriminator of attitudes toward guidance services than is the public-parochial school dimension. In a recent study, soon to be published in the *Educational Research Bulletin*, they found that, although both public- and parochial-school elementary teachers view guidance services as means of rehabilitating the deficient, they are much closer together in their thinking than are elementary and secondary public-school teachers. Obviously, then, the manner in which guidance services are utilized at the elementary-school and secondary-school levels is a function of the nature of these educational levels and the differing perceptions of guidance held by teachers and counselors at these levels. With current thinking emphasizing the developmental rather than the remedial or preventive type of guidance, top priority in the use of counseling services should be given to the superior student because he is best able to perceive the insights and thoughts that arise in the counseling situation (5).

SECONDARY VS. COLLEGE

Just as the organizational patterns of elementary and secondary schools result in the primacy of particular conceptions of guidance services, so do the differences between high schools and colleges have similar consequences. Because of differences in their backgrounds and in the environmental settings in which they work, secondary-school and college counselors contribute to the development of individuals in a different fashion. Hoyt (3) has described these differences in some detail. He maintains that the college counselor enjoys a number of advantages over the high-school counselor. In particular, he mentions the following: the advantage of more psychological training which enables him to delve more deeply into client problems (a situation which is not always true, we must add),

of possessing more elaborate psychometric facilities, of being able to have a greater number of counseling contacts than the secondary counselor would be able to have, of being able to work primarily with voluntary subjects, and finally, of being able to work with a more intellectually select and a more mature group who, therefore, should be the better able to profit from the counseling experience.

But this is not a one-sided coin. There are advantages which the secondary-school counselor does not share with the college counselor. Among these advantages, Hoyt (3) points out the following: the advantage obtained by having a common background gained by living in the same community as do his clients, by having the cumulative records of his clients at his disposal, and by having the opportunity to gather non-testing kinds of appraisal information such as anecdotal records, rating scales, autobiographies, and sociograms. Other advantages include his opportunity to work with the client's teachers from whom he can gain help in understanding the client and in changing classroom environment, his opportunity to work directly with parents either by calling them in or by visiting them directly in their homes, and, last, the fact that he observes and meets his clients and their peers in many and varied settings both in and out of school.

Up to this point we have stressed the different opportunities and/or obstacles confronting counselors at the various school levels. If, however, guidance services are to be viewed as developmental in nature, it is essential that most of these opportunities be exploited in a consistent and predictable manner. It is necessary, for example, that the secondary-school counselor profit from the advantages of the elementary-school counselor and that, in turn, the college counselor profit from the work of the secondary-school counselor.

Any discussion of the interdependence of guidance services at various levels must attempt to answer one central question: "What kinds of contributions can counselors at particular educational levels make to facilitate the work of counselors who function at other educational levels?" In answer to this question, we believe there are four major contributions that counselors at different levels can make to help each other do a more effective job of counseling. First, counselors at particular levels can help their clients to gain a *readiness* for guidance services at the next level. The high-school counselor can tell his clients that the colleges they will be attending have testing and counseling centers which exist for their benefit. Perhaps even more important, the counselor can communicate to students that there is no stigma attached to the utilization of guidance services. There is considerable evidence that far too many students view counselors as junior psychologists or psychiatrists (2). Along this line, it is interesting to note that counselor-educators, who are alarmed at the shortage of counselors, have suggested establishing priorities for the use of the counselors' time, and, further, that top priority should be given to gifted students, as we have mentioned before (5). If this thinking

catches hold, it may soon be a mark of distinction among students to be seen talking to a counselor.

The second kind of contribution that counselors can make to help each other is to make known *what they expect* of each other. This is especially possible in the elementary and secondary schools of the same school system. Agreement can, for example, be reached on which standardized tests should be used and how the results of these tests can be most meaningfully recorded on cumulative records.

Related to this second contribution is a third. Counselors at the upper educational levels should *feed back information* to counselors at lower levels with respect to the performance of clients on psychological tests taken during orientation week, scholarships won to graduate and professional schools, and other information of this type. Perhaps we can learn something from the field of athletics. The football programs at many large universities, for example, contain the name of the high-school coach of each player on the squad. This is intended to be, and usually is, a cherished honor and a sign of recognition to the coach of a job well done. Why not let the counselor know when a person he has worked with has done well—observing, of course, the ethics of the counseling profession? By all means, the counselor should be informed of the progress of groups of students from his school who have attended particular colleges. In this way and in this way only will he be able to develop his own "Consumers' Guide to College and Universities." He should not trust in such sensational media as *Life* or *Look* to learn what it takes to succeed at a given school. Contributions are two-way streets. Information about groups of students or non-confidential information about individual students can be passed up or down the educational ladder.

The fourth and final contribution that counselors can make to help each other is simple but exceedingly important. Counselors at all levels should respect each other and realize that each plays an indispensable role in the guidance movement. Far too often at professional meetings, a snobbish hierarchy is established. College people feel that elementary- and secondary-school counselors know little if anything about counseling and couldn't tell a chi-square from a T-square. High-school counselors, on the other hand, are frequently heard to exclaim that people who are teaching courses in guidance and counseling wouldn't know what to do if they came face-to-face in the privacy of a counseling suite with a real live high-school student. Older counselors often feel that younger counselors are too inexperienced to know anything about life. Younger counselors sometimes say that older counselors are too much out of step with the times to understand the modern adolescent. All these comments come from people who belong to a profession predicated upon the dignity and worth of every individual. It is important for us to realize that no matter at which school level we work, we each have a significant contribution to make to the development of the individuals who are in the process of ascending the educational ladder. The contributions made

by counselors and teachers at *each* level are important. If guidance for *all* the youth in our schools is to become a reality, rather than to remain forever as a glorious but unattainable ideal, we must, as professional people, afford each other the same kind of respect and understanding that, it is hoped, we accord the students who are our clients.

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After-School Detention as a Deterrent to Tardiness

DAVID E. NEWTON

DURING the past four years, the home-room teachers of Ottawa Hills High School have penalized tardiness to school by assigning tardy students to "eighth hour"; *i.e.*, time to be made up after school. This procedure parallels rather closely a traditional educational "technique" followed in many schools. Despite the rather general use of the eighth hour, the practice has not gone without criticism. Some teachers noted

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that (1) tardiness did not decrease significantly and (2) individuals assigned to the eighth hour seemed continually to reappear at this session, indicating chronic re-occurrence of tardy behavior. Thus, the punishment did not appear to be effective as a means of reducing tardiness and increasing student responsibility, and the greater educational value of the practice seemed negated. In addition, the work involved for the home-room teacher in assigning and checking eighth-hour assignments is considerable, particularly in a group as large as the one under study—245 students.

Other teachers have felt that tardiness *did* decrease sufficiently to warrant continuation of the practice. This divergence of opinion among Ottawa teachers again reflects a more general disagreement among teachers as to the educational value of this technique. The purpose of this study was, therefore, to determine the effectiveness of after-school punishment as a deterrent to student tardinesses.

The study was carried out in the twelfth-grade home room at Ottawa Hills High School from September 1959 to March 1960. During the first half of this period tardinesses to school were punished in the following way: the first four tardinesses for any student were "free"; no penalty was invoked. After the fifth tardiness, the student was required to make up three hours after school—one hour on each of three successive nights. All students were generally familiar with this practice in earlier grades; however, the exact ruling had been one "free" tardiness and one-half hour for each successive tardiness. During the second half of the period of the study, no penalty of any type was imposed for any number of tardinesses by a student.

Late arrivals in the home room were counted and recorded by a group of eight student assistants, selected for this job on the basis of their superior attendance records in previous years. These assistants were spot-checked during the period of study by the researcher to be sure that recording was accurate. In order to avoid individual interpretation, the following general definition of tardiness to school was adopted and promulgated: any student who is not in his assigned seat when the tardy bell rings is to be considered as late.

The major difficulty involved in carrying out the study was in the variable climatic conditions which existed during the period of the study. Early in the school year (majority of the first half of the study), the weather was mild and there was little snow or other conditions hampering travel. Almost coincidentally with the beginning of the second half of the study, severe weather conditions arose. In fact, 253 tardinesses (23.51% of the total during the study) occurred on five days in late January and late February. An attempt to compensate for this highly variable factor has been made. The number of tardinesses each student had during the fourth quarter of the study in comparison to the number he had during the third quarter identifies the influence of severe weather conditions and "blizzard days." During this period (latter half of the

study) the major experimental factor—after-school detention—is constant, and increases or decreases in the rate of tardiness may reasonably be ascribed to variable weather conditions, assuming no other major factor is variable at the same time.

Information obtained in the study was compiled in the following way: the school semester is divided into three six-week marking periods. Thus, the study included all three marking periods of the first semester (I-1, 2, 3) and the first marking period of the second semester (II-1). The number of tardinesses for each student during each of the marking periods was recorded. The first two marking periods of the first semester (I-1, 2) comprised the first half of the study, and, thus, the average number of tardinesses for each student during this time was considered the "base" number of tardinesses. Then, the increase or decrease from the base to the third marking period of the first semester (I-3) and to the first marking period of the second semester (II-1) was measured and tabulated.

Specific observations on the data are as follows:

1A. 14 students (5.71%) showed an increase of more than three tardinesses from the base period to I-3.

B. 189 students (77.14%) showed an increase of no more than 1 tardiness over the same period.

2A. 32 students (13.07%) showed an increase of more than three tardinesses from the base period to II-1.

B. 159 students (64.89%) showed an increase of no more than one tardiness over the same period.

3. The correction factor for weather conditions appears to account for some of the increase in tardinesses. This is particularly true among those whose increase from base period to I-3 and II-1 is slight.

CONCLUSIONS

1. For the vast majority of students, the frequency of tardinesses is not significantly affected by punishment by after school detention.

2. For a relatively small number of students (about 10%), the imposition of after school detention is an important factor in keeping tardinesses at a low figure.

If I Were a High School Counselor

C. L. SPELLMAN

IF I WERE a high-school counselor I would try to see my son in every boy or my daughter in every girl entering my office. My efforts would be to make each youngster coming into the scope of my influence the kind of son or daughter I would relish for myself. I would want to analyze each young person in an effort to help him find his real and proper place in the order that must be. Then I would want to help him realize his maximum development and adjustment.

After putting a counselee at ease, I would inquire into his progress in classes, for I feel that the better the grades a student gets, other things being equal, the greater the opportunities for success. I would seek to know his plans for future courses. While I would not be unduly concerned about his choice, if it seemed to parallel his needs, I would emphasize to him the importance of a full and adequate background in certain school offerings which are known to have great values for most people. In this category I would place the social sciences high on the list. Sometime ago a doctor of medicine, when asked what courses he felt most important in the training of a doctor, surprised me by naming the social sciences. He said that to help an ill person many times was more a personal than a medical matter. The ability of the doctor to understand and relate himself to the ill person was often the secret to helping him recover. Each of us, most of the time, must relate himself to others. It is, therefore, important that we thoroughly understand ourselves and others, how we articulate, the institutions we have developed, the mechanics of our government, and the like in order to do the jobs ahead.

Closely related to this is the area of physical and mental soundness, so I would try to help my youth dig into an understanding of those aspects of well-being. A strong body and a healthy mind are assets for our times. Contemporary tensions and anxieties are highly debilitating. There is only a hair-line difference between many actual and many psychosomatic disturbances in people. It would be to the everlasting advantage of my youth if he could know himself as a basis for knowing the people with whom he must live.

In this respect I would want my counselee to be sure to experience, while in school, such body and mind stimulating and preserving disciplines as physical education, mental and physical hygiene, education for leisure time, sociology, and the like; for only through the individual's own sense and feeling of personal security and well-being can there be real satisfaction in his living.

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I would look at each counselee as a satisfactorily maturing individual who is entitled to freedom to choose his way in life to the extent that his choices are in harmony with his own good and the good of others. I would recognize, however, that all freedom to be granted to those who are immature should be freedom under constructive guidance. It would be a tragedy for those of us who are responsible to surrender fully to the immature complete freedom to plot a course which the experience of the mature has proved imprudent. Under no theory should those competent to know leave to happenstance the course or progress of youth.

Stresses of this atomic age certainly are tending to make their inroads into the bodies, minds, and personalities of your young people. I believe that most young people are capable of sound thinking if provided proper guidance. I believe, also, that most growing youth miss one important basis for personal or group guidance. By law or by design, the Bible is practically excluded from the public schools' program. Students miss this basic literature of guidance at a time in life, in my opinion, when they can least afford to be without it. I would therefore encourage them to read the Bible fully and often. I would encourage them personally to develop a love for Bible reading—there to find, appreciate, and become enamoured of the eternal verities of the ages to which Christian people subscribe. There would be no problem of juvenile delinquency or other delinquency if more people lived by the postulates of truth contained there.

I would encourage them to read it for love of good literature—the carefully detailed sagas of travel, the unfolding panorama of geography, the catching lilt of poetry, the impact of parables or stories well told, *etc.*

It is my thesis that one who studies this book sufficiently finds means of harmonizing himself with the milieu in which he is cast. In its pages are asked hundreds of questions for which man is compelled to find answers. There is beauty in its unfolding, beauty because it does not always answer the questions, yet one who studies it finds a serenity and satisfaction which in itself must be the answer. Surely each one is concerned about what shall become of himself. We find written, “. . . for the living know that they shall die.” How sad this is! Yet also is written, “this do and thou shalt live.” How comforting! And on and on it goes raising and yet harmonizing seeming paradoxes.

I would encourage each young person to travel early and often in life, for travel is cultural and broadening. Now when we encourage youth to be independent and energetic, there is no reason to feel that an upper teenager should not go almost any place on earth without adult supervision. Such an objective as travel would offer the youth an incentive to work and save his money. This in itself would reduce the opportunity to develop or practice acts of delinquency.

There is much within the reach of any youth for very reasonable financial outlay. I would suggest to my youth that anyone who has never lived in a large city should see and experience a great metropolitan center

like Washington, New York, Los Angeles, Dallas, or Atlanta. Each one, for himself, should tour great museums, art galleries, and zoos; should witness great operas, movies, ballets, symphonies, and the legitimate stage; should tour great churches and cathedrals, civic buildings and the like; should witness great natural wonders like Niagara Falls, The Grand Canyon, The Sequoia Trees, *etc.*, and each one should thrill to the great outdoor historical pageants like The Lost Colony, Horn in the West, The Common Glory, *etc.*

I would emphasize that our times call for acquaintanceship with the peoples of the world. Within reach of any industrious teenager for only slightly over a hundred dollars are several cultures differing from ours. There could be no better experience than an excursion by air or water to Bermuda, Cuba, Puerto Rico, or islands of the West Indies, or by various means, including the thumb, to Canada or Mexico.

I would stress to each student the importance of the highest proficiency in the language arts. The daily tendency of many young people to be slovenly in this area is deplorable. Too much emphasis can never be placed on the importance of reading, writing, speaking, and listening in interpersonal relationships. After a person is suffused with stimulation by the vicarious experiences in reading or direct relationships in listening, his expression must be through his written or spoken rejoinder. As soon as he enters this area, he is evaluated by his observers. It is to his credit if the evaluation is favorable.

One reacts properly only if he properly interprets the stimulus. Certainly one cannot properly react to the spoken word unless he properly hears and understands it. In the first place, proper hearing depends upon normal functioning of the body's hearing mechanism. It would, therefore, be important that as counselor I would help each student maintain his entire body in tip-top physical condition. In the second place, proper hearing depends upon properly attending to the spoken word. Many young people must be helped develop hearing through proper attitudes of attention, concentration, and *desire to hear*.

These dispositions simply guarantee that one becomes properly aware of certain stimuli. Full hearing must include understanding. This is furthered by the experiential backgrounds of the individual. Thus his wide scope of high-school courses, his readings, his travel, his hobby, or leisure time activities all assist in making meaningful the things heard. Important in the experiential background is the person's vocabulary. How often the meaning of a beautiful sentence is lost behind an unfamiliar word. Understanding of words might also mean money! Morton Winthrop, on page six of the magazine section of the Washington, D. C. *Sunday Star* for October 30, 1960, presented a list of twenty fairly common words, understanding of which had been experimentally found highly to correlate with annual salary earned by people in many categories. I would want to encourage counselees to develop an avid interest in dictionaries for the sake of broad vocabularies.

Beyond this, I would try to help young people realize the importance of good writing. Certainly I would be concerned with the writing which means the creative liberation of the soul, for that is the way to stimulate others to appreciate what we appreciate. But much more needs be said of writing which means setting down on paper the curves and twists which are interpreted by others competent to discern one's meaning. Concerning this, therefore, I would try to help young people realize that poor handwriting is not chic. Graphologists can take handwriting and delineate many aspects of the temperament, character, and personality of the writer. But the ordinary person who views shoddy handwriting, judges the writer as being careless and unkempt in his general disposition. It need not be mentioned that the writer is the loser if his message cannot be interpreted by those for whom it is meant.

With my young people, I would extend consideration of the language arts to include the importance of foreign languages in today's world. Except for countries behind the Iron Curtain, crossing many international boundaries is commonplace and almost without incident. The United Nations, UNESCO, student exchange programs, The International Cooperation Administration, *etc.* have drawn the peoples of the earth into a small world-community. The glaring disadvantage to all is the language barrier. I believe that, of the nations of the earth, our United States is most delinquent in learning the language of other peoples. Those who meet other peoples to represent us will improve the possibility of mutual understanding as they meet the others on equal footing—including language. Our young people who are helped realize this and who do not shirk learning the languages will be qualifying for valuable service in the continuing struggle for world leadership now current among the nations.

No spoken language of the world is unimportant in the evolving world-community. If one is hoping for an honorable and productive vocational opportunity, I would tell him to master several languages and offer himself for foreign service. There are hundreds of areas with thousands of languages and dialects waiting for representatives of good to bring them leadership. One is almost able to choose his place for service. There is the vast continent of Africa with all its new countries; there are vast areas of southeast Asia; there are islands in the southwest Pacific. And in due process, the consuming alchemy of God's grace will corrode holes in the Iron Curtain of Europe and apostles of good will move freely into the blighted countries which have so long been obscured there. Today's youth should be able to be at ease any place on earth!

If ideas so far have not specifically indicated a realization that youth must earn a living, let that be considered now. Vocation is one of the cardinal virtues enunciated by the Educational Policies Commission. No well-thinking individual could be happy while being dependent upon others for nurture. Youth are so often impatient to become earners that many tend to abandon school before getting ready to be successful, long-term earners. This we must help overcome. While doing this, it is impor-

tant to be able to provide them with abundant knowledge of the manner in which men make a living. It is astonishing how limited is the knowledge of many high-school graduates as to the number and variety of vocational opportunities the world offers. Most of them are blinded by those work opportunities most frequently seen. There are thousands of kinds of jobs about which they have never heard. Therein is the reason they may not branch out into more personally rewarding avenues. *The World Book Encyclopedia* for 1960 states that, in the late 1950's, in this country there were more than 40,000 different kinds of jobs available. There are still other kinds of jobs held by people in other countries. Camel breeding and big game conservation are a couple which to us seem exotic. As a counselor, I would feel that to open the eyes of a youngster to new vistas of opportunity would be a possibility of liberating him from the usual and ordinary.

As a counselor, I would realize the impatience of youth. They chafe while waiting. So in my counsel I would try to help them develop patience and fortitude through whatever duration is necessary to obtain a solid foundation in education. Statistics show the increased earnings of people of different levels of education. Generally, high-school graduates earn more than those who dropped out; the college graduate earns more than the high-school graduate, and so on. Any deviation from this is the exception.

And finally, as counselor, I would try to have my counselees understand that, as an individual, each one is important. His importance is not as much in the sum total of his associations as in his personal, intrinsic value. He must, within himself, be both willing and able to turn to the right when all others turn to the left if to him it seems more appropriate to turn to the right. I would want him to know that for every man there is a "high way and a low" and that each for himself must decide which way his soul shall go. The ability of one to make right decisions and establish himself as really important will depend upon his basic acceptance of sound principles of ethics and morals, upon his willingness to stand firmly for right, justice, equality, truth, etc.

If I could feel that a goodly portion of these ideals were being absorbed by my counselees, I would think my work well done.

The High School Guidance Counselor

ALFRED STILLER

THERE are today several potent factors which can be expected to influence the trends of tomorrow's education and of the specialized services of the school. Of these, the best-known probably is the impact of "Sputnikism," the evaluation of our educational system in terms of the progress which Russia has effected in a short time. Another factor, less known but no less important, is the sociological development of our past history and its implications for the near future. Because of the relatively low birth rate of the 1930's and the relatively high birth rate of the post-World-War II era, coupled with rapidly increasing technological improvement, we can foresee an expanding economy with greater demands for talent and leaders than ever before, but with a smaller pool of talent from which to draw. A third factor is increasing concern with mental health and mental illness; Fein has estimated the direct and indirect costs of mental illness to be more than \$2.4 billion a year (7:57). Even more sobering were his quotes of remarks made in 1953 at a hearing of the Committee on Interstate and Foreign Commerce of the House of Representatives. Among other things, these quotes indicated that:

1. Mental illness is the nation's number one health problem.
2. More than half of all hospital beds in this country are occupied by the mentally ill.
3. About 50 per cent of patients who are treated in general practice have psychiatric complications.
4. At least 6 per cent of our total population—about 9 million people—suffer from a serious mental disorder. (7:3-4)

A fourth factor is our recognition of the increasing complexity of modern life and the inability of the home and other institutions to provide all the guidance needed by youth. Because of the factors cited above, the number of guidance counselors has increased rapidly and is expected to increase still more in the near future. The Honorable Lawrence G. Derthick, former Commissioner of Education of the United States and now with the National Education Association, has pointed to guidance as a basic answer to the problem of making the best possible use of tomorrow's talent (4). Congress, by means of the National Defense Education Act, has asked guidance to assist in the identification and motivation of academically talented youth. Conant (3) and others are asking the same function of guidance counselors. It can be expected that great emphasis will be placed on the diagnostic and appraisal functions of the counselor, which along with orientation, information-giving,

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and placement, have traditionally comprised the major duties of the secondary-school counselor.

To date little attention has been paid by school counselors to the mental health problem, partly because of pressure of other duties, partly because of lack of training, and partly because of the belief that this function should be left to the clinical psychologist. However, the nature and adequacy of the functions and the basic philosophy of the school counselor are today being challenged by the leaders of the counseling movement in colleges and industry, a group known as counseling psychologists.

Counseling psychology as a separate discipline began only in 1953, but it has its roots in the vocational guidance and individual testing movements, just as does public school guidance. Counseling psychologists have used—and to a great extent have discarded—the notion that successful vocational counseling consists of determining an individual's aptitudes, abilities, or traits and then of finding an occupation which requires that particular constellation of factors. They have observed the frequency with which personal factors affect an individual's behavior and, consequently, now look beyond the problem as stated by the client to the personal difficulties which prevent him from solving his own problem. Super has traced this development—" . . . the movement which started as vocational guidance in the United States, first with an emphasis on vocational orientation activities and then with a parallel and eventually merging emphasis on aptitude testing, both leading to placement, recently also assimilated a psycho-therapeutic approach and has emerged as the 'new' field of counseling psychology. While it includes vocational guidance, it goes beyond it to deal with the person as a person, attempting to help him with all types of life adjustments. *Its underlying principle is that it is the adjusting individual who needs help, rather than merely an occupational, marital, or personal problem which needs solution.*" (26:4) (Italics mine)

The questions that are being raised concerning the functions of the counselor are not merely academic in nature. In the words of one group which has studied the problem of counselor training, "States are not in a position to guarantee that certification of a counselor means good counseling. The universities that educate counselors in their specialty have to assume a major responsibility for the quality of background training that is provided." (10) Counselor-trainers—those who train school counselors—belong by and large to this group of counseling psychologists. The books, pamphlets, and other publications used in training school counselors reflect to a great extent the counseling psychology view. It is extremely likely that recently trained counselors have assimilated this point of view to a greater or lesser degree. For example, a survey of "Theses in Counseling and Student Personnel Work" (28) for the years 1953-1956 reported on 144 Doctoral dissertations and 60 Master's theses. Only 37 of the Doctoral dissertations dealt with topics related to guidance or personnel work *per se*. The others considered topics of personal-

ity and adjustment, topics of greater interest to psychologically oriented workers. At the Master's level, 27 theses dealt with other guidance topics, and 33 with personality or adjustment questions. Yet, by and large, these new counselors work in a school setting in which the administrator has little or no concept of counseling psychology and, possibly, even less faith in its practicability. The administrator is likely to consider the counselor as an educator who worked in the subject field of guidance, whereas the counseling psychologist looks upon him as a brother psychologist who works in an educational setting. It is the purpose of this article to demonstrate that there is a difference between the concept of the guidance function held by school administrators and that held by counseling psychologists and to present the author's views towards the reconciling of these differences.

THE PARTS OF THE PROBLEM

The problem of the function and role of the high-school guidance counselor is manifold and complex. This article will discuss the problem in terms of the following questions:

1. What is counseling? How does it differ from guidance?
2. What are the counselor's functions?
3. Who should become a counselor?

WHAT IS COUNSELING? HOW DOES IT DIFFER FROM GUIDANCE?

To the layman, including the educator, any time a guidance worker engages in an individual interview he is "counseling." To others, counseling means the giving of advice (5). For the counseling psychologist, however, this word has a special meaning. To him, "Counseling has distinctive functions involving an emphasis upon personality development and upon an environmental understanding of the client." (33:2) Pepinsky has indicated that the current tendency is to group all psychotherapies under the term "counseling" as a psychological function. (13:3) A recent textbook on guidance techniques (which mentions counseling little, if at all) states that, "The point will bear repeating that guidance as defined by those who approach the problem rationally implies, first of all, recognition and understanding of the individual and creation of conditions that will enable each individual to develop his fullest capacities and ultimately to achieve the maximum possible self-guidance and security both economically and socially." (29:9)

Judging from these citations, the counseling psychologist views counseling as a process designed to promote an individual's understanding of himself and of his environment. It differs from guidance in the personal nature of the process and in the depth of penetration into the individual's perceptions. It differs also in the emphasis placed upon the influence of the perceptions. To the educator, counseling is one of the guidance services; to the counseling psychologist, it is *the* guidance function.

WHAT ARE THE COUNSELOR'S FUNCTIONS?

It would follow from the above that education and counseling psychology would differ in their concept of the function and role of the school counselor. There have been many attempts made to define this role, but generally these attempts have been made by members of a relatively homogeneous group who might be expected to agree. Thus, educators may easily agree upon the functions of the counselor, counselor-trainers will also agree, but there will be little agreement between the two disciplines. That a difference of opinion does exist, and that this difference is reflected in actual counselor work practices, may be easily demonstrated. Derthick (4) has indicated that some counselors spend as much as half their time in duties which are considered to be more administrative than counseling. He further states that, although guidance and counseling are essential to the realization of our educational objective, we are falling far short of realizing adequate guidance programs in many schools. A study by Tennyson of 152 certificated guidance workers in Missouri (27) has shown that these workers spend almost as much time in administrative duties as they do in counseling. In some cases, as much as 80 per cent of a counselor's time has been spent on clerical and/or administrative duties (24). However, the argument goes far beyond the question of the percentage of time spent on various duties. Even if the school counselor were to spend all of his time upon such guidance functions as orientation, the occupational and educational library, individual analysis, and placement—even then the psychologically oriented counselor would argue that this is not counseling.

What does education feel should be the guidance function? Generally, its concept is that the guidance worker should acquaint the student with the pertinent and necessary facts about himself and about the world; the student will be able to accomplish the rest. Thus, those papers on guidance given at the 42nd Annual Convention of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals dealt primarily with those guidance services which provide information (16). Thus, Ginzberg (8) says that it is more important to ensure that information is made available to people who need it than it is to work on psycho-dynamics. He indicates that the counselor can do little to change the basic attitudes of young people to school and to work, and, therefore, the counselor should work in the direction of making the youngster aware of the resources available in the community and in himself. The Educational Policies Commission (6:95) has said, "There is at least one clear need which is stressed by the manpower situation and which calls for imaginative and creative development. This is the need to develop adequate methods of identifying the best abilities of every individual to the end that his further education may result in their optimum development." The National Defense Education Act, by its emphasis on the function of guidance to identify talent (8), supports this view that the most important part of guidance

is to supply knowledge to students. The principals of two New York state high schools, in a workshop on "The Wise Use of a Counselor's Time—Whose Responsibility?" (32), have said that the counselor's function is to know as much as possible about the pupil to help him function as effectively as possible. They go on to say that all specialized services in the schools—including guidance—exist only to facilitate learning; the classroom is the focal point of instruction and the counselor should put his primary emphasis on those conditions which affect learning. And they further state that the counselor tends to spend too much of his time in the personal interview; instead, he should extend his activities to include such functions as discipline and attendance. The certification requirements for counselors in New York state (17), by their emphasis on the non-counseling aspects of counselor training, support this information giving view. Perhaps the most extreme position is that taken by Conant, who assigns to the counselor the function of giving advice and of "steering" pupils in the right direction. "The function of the counselor is not to supplant the parents but supplement parental advice to a youngster" (3:44-5). In several other cases, Conant uses the words "counsel" and "guide" as synonymous with "advise" or "urge."

To the counseling psychologist, the primary function of the counselor is counseling with students, and he should retain only those functions connected with this. (32) In the preface of his book *Counseling in the Secondary School*, Smith states flatly that "throughout this book counseling is considered to be central service of the guidance program with all other services occupying a supporting role." (22:v) Or Rothney and Roens say "the guidance program must become essentially a counseling program" (19:8) and claim that all common (group) guidance functions are merely contributory to the counseling process. Stewart, in his *Bill of Rights for Counselors* (24), includes "the right to enough time to do his real job—to engage in counseling *per se*." These counselor-trainers take the point of view that experience has shown that psychological problems will prevent, or lessen the capacity for, learning and that the giving of information is of little value unless accompanied by the ability of the student to use this information in a purposeful manner. They further say, that if the factors preventing individual learning are removed, then the individual can, and will, seek out the necessary information by himself, thus allowing the counselor more time to work on counseling with others. There are plenty of resources available to furnish information, but few to remove psychological blocks. Therefore, this should become the specialized function of the counselor.

Perhaps the best manner of pointing out the differing emphases on counselor functions is to compare those functions as stated by the Educational Policies Commission and by the Committee on Professional Training, Licensing, and Certification of the American Personnel and Guidance Association.

Educational Policies Commission (10)

1. To gather information about occupational requirements, opportunities, and prospects; and to maintain a system for making such information readily accessible to teachers and students.
2. To set up and maintain cumulative records about each student.
3. To help all teacher colleagues to increase skill and understanding in guidance.
4. To give personal counseling to individual students with special problems.
5. To plan and coordinate school-wide activities such as "career days," special assemblies, and testing programs.
6. To maintain liaison with out-of-school agencies, including other guidance services, labor unions and prospective employers, and with alumni and other former students.

American Personal and Guidance Association (18)

1. To increase the accuracy of the individual's self-percepts.
2. To increase the accuracy of the individual's environmental perceptions.
3. To integrate the individual's self-percepts with environmental realities and perceptions.
4. To present relevant information.
5. To improve the individual's ability to make and execute plans.

WHO SHOULD BECOME A COUNSELOR?

In a survey of counselor employment policies and practices in the 48 states (31), Weitz discovered that most states will not hire, as a guidance counselor, a person highly trained as a guidance worker but not certifiable as a teacher. This seems to represent a view of education that the guidance counselor should be a competent teacher who seems to have the right "temperament" for guidance and who meets certification requirements. Pierson (15) seems to express this view best when he says that the counselor should think of himself as an experienced teacher with special training whose job is to help teachers, administrators, and parents to carry on the process of educating the student.

Counselor-trainers will argue that it is personal, motivational, or emotional problems which interfere with the learning process. Therefore the counselor must be highly trained in the techniques and skills of dealing with adjustment problems; this professional skill constitutes a unique discipline in itself which may be applied to any field of work. Thus the guidance counselor in the high school should be a psychologist or psychologically trained worker who can function any place but who happens in this case to be operating in an educational setting. As Bordin puts it (2), "counselors speak with many tongues and identify with varied

disciplines and professional groups." A book review by Arbuckle (1) seems best to sum up the attitude of counselor-trainers toward the view of counseling as educational in nature:

The statement that "because counseling takes place in an educational setting, it follows logically that its purpose also should be educational" . . . might seem to some to be a rather illogical statement. The author's statement that we should "try to get counseling back into its rightful role as an educational instrument" . . . is also highly debatable. It may be that one of the reasons that so few school counselors do any real counseling is that they think of themselves as educators, and they think of counseling as an "educational instrument."

A SUGGESTION FOR COUNSELING IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

At one time secondary schools operated on an attrition basis—survival of the fittest. Those whose ability, motivation, and study skills were adequate for the task succeeded. Many of these then went on to provide educational, vocational, social, and political leadership. This system worked in pre-World War II America in which there existed a large unskilled class of workers, a smaller semi-skilled class, and still smaller skilled and professional classes, although even then there was growing recognition of the need for a more personalized service. The guidance service was inaugurated to help youngsters make educational and vocational choices in a world rapidly becoming more complex. It was added to an educational system which could still operate by the process of attrition.

Today the problem of educational and vocational planning is even more complex, made so by a growing demand for highly trained personnel and narrowing opportunities for unskilled workers. Added to this is the rapid growth in the sum total of human knowledge over the past fifty years. In order to solve these problems alone, it would be necessary for the secondary school to abandon its policy of attrition in favor of one which assists each student in employing his abilities to their maximum. However, superimposed upon these problems is the additional sociological emergency which exists in the United States, that of the dearth of leaders in the foreseeable future. This makes it even more imperative that the potentially superior student not only be identified, but also be motivated to develop his talents to their full capacity. The superior student who has ceased to perform must be retrieved. All others must be encouraged to perform their best.

In line with the history of the development of the guidance service in the secondary school, there exists today a wealth of information upon career and educational opportunities, offered to the student free of charge. A plenitude of free advice is also available—from family, friends, college or societal representatives, religious leaders, social agencies, and teachers. For some students, this information and advice provides all the direction needed. In a very large percentage of the cases, however, the student fails to take advantage of the information and/or advice. In most of these cases in this writer's experience, failure of a student to plan ade-

quately for the future or to achieve to his full capacity has been caused at least in part by emotional, social, or motivational problems. It is for these students who for some reason cannot take advantage of the normal guidance functions of school and society that the counselor should exercise his special training.

At the present time this service is either lacking or present only in a very limited sense. The school psychologist, if one is present, works mainly with abnormal cases. The guidance staff is busy with orientation, program planning, scheduling, and educational and vocational information-giving. In many cases, no counselor has been trained to work with students who fall within the normal range of personality characteristics, but whose full development is impeded by some psychological factor. Yet these problems must be cleared before the student can take advantage of the guidance services being offered. This indicates that professional counseling service—as distinct from guidance service—must be available in the secondary school for all whose school progress seems to be blocked by psychological factors.

At the present time, a great deal of money is being spent by secondary schools to provide guidance services. Much of this money is being wasted because the service does not help those who need it the most. The need for greater efficiency and less waste alone would indicate that secondary-school administrators must modify their concept that the function of guidance is to provide the student with information about himself and about educational and vocational opportunities to include the concept that guidance must eliminate any blocks to increased self-understanding and self-direction by the pupil.

The system for providing this professional counseling service may vary from school to school. In large city districts, a central counseling office may be established to which school guidance staff may make referrals. Smaller schools may prefer to have one or more of their current staff trained to assume this function. Very small or rural units may prefer a cooperative plan, similar to the Board of Cooperative Services system existing in New York state. Regardless of the system employed, there should be available at least one counselor, fully trained, whose sole duty is to work with students referred by other guidance staff. Should this counselor be able to solve student problems which would otherwise harry teachers, guidance staff, and administrators for years to come, he would pay for himself many times over. It has been demonstrated in many instances in the past that prevention is far cheaper than cure.

A SYNTHESIS OF THE PROBLEM

From the above discussion, it seems clear that the basic difference between education and counselor-trainers lies in their philosophies. Education feels that guidance is the providing of information and instruction, whereas counselor-trainers would hold that guidance is the prevention of mental imbalance or illness. From this basic difference stems the afore-

mentioned differences in counselor selection, training, and functions. There is even an inherent difference in the meaning assigned to the word "counseling."

Guidance is being asked to furnish an ever-increasing role in our attempts at solution of the pressing economic, political, and social problems of today. Because of this, it is necessary for educators and counselor-trainers to agree on their concepts of what constitutes counseling. As a start, they might attempt to find a common meeting ground for the answers to the following questions:

1. Should the school accept the responsibility of a positive attempt at fostering mental health through counseling? If not, what agency, if any, should accept this responsibility?
2. What should be the training of the school counselor?
3. What should be the functions of the school counselor?
4. Will the counselor's function encroach upon that of the school psychologist?
5. Should a different title be given to the school counselor?

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Reporting Pupil Progress to Parents

A. F. BROOKS

THEY said it couldn't be done. They said that a junior high-school parent-teacher conference plan of reporting pupil progress couldn't be done successfully because of the complex problems involved, such as each pupil having five or six different teachers instead of one as in the elementary school; lack of interest on the part of parents after pupils leave the elementary school; and the desire of junior high-school pupils not to have their parents visit school.

My very fine faculty was not willing to accept all these objections. After a Parents' Night program last spring, when only the usual fifty per cent of parents came, faculty members on their evaluation sheets suggested that we devise a plan which would bring about more parent contacts, and a plan which would bring parents to school early in the school year while there was still time to solve problems. As a result, we decided upon the Parent-Adviser Conference Plan of reporting pupil progress after the first nine-week marking period. We were aware that very few junior high schools were using this plan, and that a few had usually retreated from it after using it.

Our first step on the implementation of the plan was to determine parent interest in it. We knew that the plan could not work if parents did not want it. We mimeographed letters to send home with our advisory (home-room) pupils. In this letter we stressed our feeling that there was a need for more detailed reporting of pupil progress early in the school year, a need for better home-school communication, and that many big and little problems could be solved by the home and the school working together. We asked them to return the bottom part of the letter with their answer. The letter was received with enthusiasm. Immediately, over 600 parents expressed their desire for such a plan and complimented it. In addition, there were telephone calls telling us how happy they were that the plan had been established.

After these results, the faculty steering committee met again and devised the basic plan for the conferences and the preparation preceding the conferences. It was decided that one school day would be set aside for a schedule of 15-minute conferences from 8:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m., with a coffee break midway during the morning and afternoon. Time before and after school on other days would be used to complete some of the conferences.

Each adviser was given two conference schedule sheets, one for himself and one for the office. The latter would be needed in order to give

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information to those parents who might lose their conference schedule slips and would call the office regarding the time and place of their conferences. Another mimeographed letter was then sent to the parents for the purpose of scheduling their conferences. A confirming slip was to be returned to the adviser. Answers could also be given by telephone. Advisers were urged to telephone or visit parents, who indicated "no" or from whom no response was received and to offer to meet with them at any time, even in the evening. We wanted to make them feel that we were bending over backwards to make the conference possible. If a parent still did not give an affirmative answer to our desire for the conference, the advisers indicated the name of this parent and the reason for non-attendance on the bottom of the conference-schedule sheet. This could prove useful to us in the future. Brother-sister master sheets were prepared for the purpose of scheduling in consecutive conferences parents with more than one child in our school.

The next problem that arose was the method of subject-area teachers reporting to the advisers for these conferences. A committee of subject-area chairmen met to solve this problem. It was pointed out that since subject-matter teachers were to make reports, we wanted report sheets which would be acceptable to them, simple, and ones which would give some information to the parent. Sample sheets and suggestions were brought before this committee. These chairmen met with their respective subject-area groups and devised their report sheets. These were brought to the office, discussed, and the final form approved. The subject-area reports were mimeographed on different colored paper. Each report included not only a check-sheet analysis of the pupil's work for the nine weeks, but also suggestions for improvement. The parent would receive these with the report card.

Since the success of the parent-adviser conference plan of reporting pupil progress would depend a great deal on the success of the individual conferences, advisers were briefed on the "do's" and "don'ts" of conferences. All conferences were to follow a routine agenda. Reports were to be given on subject-areas, attendance, and *ITED* and *Iowa Achievement* tests. If there were ways in which a parent could help, these would be discussed. Parents were also asked whether future conferences were desired with the adviser, counselor, subject-area teacher, or the administration. The adviser would then arrange these for the parent. Advisers were told to be good listeners, too, because something could be told by the parent which would be helpful in solving some of the pupil's problems.

In advisory meetings, advisers were to explain to their pupils the importance of these conferences to the pupils themselves, to the parents, and to the school. This would help to bring the youngsters into the picture. The student council organized a group of ushers to direct parents to conference rooms. Name plates made by the art teacher were placed on conference room doors. Chairs, for waiting parents, were to be placed outside each room.

Another important part of the plan was the conference report sheet. This was to be a brief record, with concise statements and little detail. It would be easier to refer to and would serve the purpose better than a long, wordy one. The time factor would also make long ones impossible to make. The teacher would not be able to sit down to do the recording of the interview the minute the parent left. Hence, it was important that the teacher jot down key words while the matter was fresh in his mind. With these reminders, the interview could be reconstructed in word and thought. The sooner this could be done, the less would be the danger of forgetting or getting it mixed up with things that happened in the interim. The adviser evaluation of the plan was a most important final step. From this we were able to determine ways in which the program could be improved.

The number and percentage of parent-adviser conferences was beyond our fondest expectations, 98 per cent or 677 of our 690 families were represented. In fact, since the conference, eight of the remaining thirteen families have had conferences with the teachers. Parents were enthusiastic over the plan, the detailed reports they received, and the communication they had with the school. Teachers, also, expressed themselves as having had a very interesting day, and as having learned things of value to help youngsters. Some reported an immediate pick-up in pupil participation in class after parents had carried the subject-area reports home and had gone over them with their children. The Parent-Adviser Conference Plan of reporting pupil progress can only succeed in a community where parents are intensely interested in their children and where a faculty has a dedicated desire to have better communication with the home.

As a result of our plan, we know that parents still have an important place in the junior high-school program. They, as well as we, know that the pupil doesn't stop growing after he leaves the elementary school. We know that his problems increase. There are indications of a growing concern on the part of parents of secondary-school pupils. We must meet this concern by better home-school communication. The Parent-Adviser Plan (PAP) accomplishes this need very effectively.

Best Books of 1960 on Vocational Guidance

ROBERT HOPPOCK

EACH year the author of this article undertakes to review all new books on vocational guidance, except those devoted primarily to occupational information, which are reviewed in the *Career Index* and the *Occupational Index*. The best of the books dealing with the theory and practice of vocational guidance are annotated in an annual list; this is it. Included are some earlier references which did not reach us in time to be included in the 1959 list.

Inclusion of a book in this list does not mean that it is considered infallible. It does mean that the book has been compared with other publications and considered to contain useful information that would be of interest to readers who try to keep up to date on the better literature in this field. Apologies are made in advance to authors and publishers whose books have not been included and to those who find the annotations inadequate.

Babbidge, Homer D., Jr. *Student Financial Aid Manual for Colleges and Universities*. Student Personnel Series No. 1. Washington 9, D. C.: American College Personnel Association, 1605 New Hampshire Ave., N.W. 1960. 56 pages. \$1.50. Excellent chapter on student employment discusses responsibility to work, capturing the job market, conditions of work, coordination, student enterprises, work load, educational values, and opportunities for women.

Brewster, Royce E. *Guidance Workers Certification Requirements*. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1960. 98 pages. 35¢. Requirements for school counselors and for school psychologists, by states.

Conant, James Bryant. *A Memorandum to School Boards: Recommendations for Education in the Junior High School Years*. Princeton, N. J.: Educational Testing Service. 1960. 46 pages. 50¢. "A full-time specialist, or the equivalent, in guidance and testing should be available for every 250-300 pupils in grades 7 and 8 . . . in some schools in which many pupils drop out in grades 9 and 10 a form of group instruction in vocational opportunities has much to recommend it."

Cottle, William C., and N. M. Downie. *Procedures and Preparation for Counseling*. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall. 1960. 330 pages. Trade edition, \$8; textbook, \$6. Preparation. Records and personal documents. Observation. Initial interview. Organizing an educational-vocational case study for a client. Statistics. Tests. Abilities, aptitudes, and interests. Research. Primarily devoted to "the type of preparation the counselor will need prior to a series of counseling interviews."

Directory of National and International Labor Unions in the United States. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1959. 77 pages. 45¢.

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National and state labor organizations to which counselors and teachers may turn for information on unions.

Encyclopedia of American Associations, second edition. Detroit 26: Gale Research Co. 1959. 716 pages. \$20. Directory of 8,892 trade, business, commercial, agricultural, governmental, scientific, technical, educational, welfare, medical, religious, and other associations; labor unions, chambers of commerce, etc. Cross indexed. Useful in finding sources of occupational information.

Farwell, Gail F., and Herman J. Peters. *Guidance Readings for Counselors*. Chicago: Rand McNally and Co. 1960. 691 pages. \$6.75. Eighty-four selections in ten chapters, on a framework for guidance, origins, bases for studying boys and girls, studying students, guidance information, assisting students, programming for guidance, school and community resources, research, evaluation, and professionalization. The role of the counselor is identified with that of the counseling psychologist.

From Campus to Career. A Guide for Generalists. New York: New York State Employment Service. 1960. 90 pages. Free. Advice to liberal arts and business administration students on the transition from college to employment. Concise information on eighty entry jobs: "where you will work, what you will do, what employers look for, and other facts you should consider." Useful reference for college courses in careers.

Gleazer, Edmund J., Jr., editor. *American Junior Colleges*, fifth edition. Washington 6, D. C.: American Council on Education. 1960. 564 pages. \$9. Enrollment, curricula, requirements, fees, student aid, library, buildings, grounds, etc. of 576 junior colleges recognized by regional or state accrediting agencies. Curricula offered in 16 pre-professional and liberal arts areas and in 31 terminal fields.

Goodhart, Abraham S., editor. *A Commitment to Youth*. New York: Bookman Associates. 1960. 284 pages. \$4.50. A description of the student personnel program at Brooklyn College. One chapter on the career counseling and placement services.

Guidance and Counseling. Review of Educational Research. Washington 6, D. C.: American Educational Research Association. April 1960. Pages 96-179. \$2. Reviews of literature for the preceding three years. Philosophy, organization, administration, selection and preparation of counselors, counseling, appraisal, occupational and educational information, group procedures, and evaluation.

Herzberg, Frederick; Bernard Mausner; and Barbara Bloch Snyderman. *The Motivation to Work*. New York: John Wiley and Sons. 1959. 157 pages. \$4.50. A report of research which led to the conclusion that dissatisfaction is caused by unsatisfactory conditions of work, while satisfaction comes from self-fulfillment experienced in the work itself. Critical comments on other studies of motivation.

Irwin, Mary, editor. *American Universities and Colleges*, eighth edition. Washington 6, D. C.: American Council on Education. 1960. 1,169 pages. \$13. Admission and degree requirements, departments and teaching staff, enrollment, library, student services, buildings, grounds, etc. of 1,058 accredited colleges and universities. Classified lists of more than 2,000 professional schools in 24 professions.

Lifton, Walter M. *Introducing the World of Work to Children*. Teacher's Manual for *What Could I Be?* Chicago: Science Research Associates. 1960. 23 pages. 50¢. See text listed below.

———. *What Could I Be?* Chicago: Science Research Associates. 1960. 33 pages. 54¢. A text-workbook for grades three and four. Orientation to occupations. What do you think you could be? What do you do best? Job families. What kinds of work can you do now? What makes jobs different? See teacher's manual listed above.

Lovejoy, Clarence E. *Lovejoy's College Guide*, fifth edition. New York: Simon and Schuster. 1959. 290 pages. Paper, \$2.50; plastic, \$4.95. Directory of 2,266 American colleges and universities, accredited and not accredited. Related discussion of college costs and ways to meet them, admission, choosing a college, regional and professional accreditation, career curricula. Lists of colleges with Hillel groups, participants in the advanced placement program, etc.

MacMinn, Paul; Carroll H. Miller; and Frank E. Wellman. *Research in School and College Personnel Services*. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1960. 136 pages. 55¢. Summaries of unpublished studies, Sept. 1956 to Sept. 1958.

Manpower. Challenge of the 1960s. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1960. 24 pages. Tables, charts, and comment on education and employment from 1960 to 1970.

Michels, Marjorie E. *Occupational Information. A Classified Bibliography*, revised. Berkeley: Counseling Center, University of California. 1960. 25 pages. \$1.00. Total of 300 references published from 1945 to 1959. Methods and organization for service. Concepts, function, influence, and scope. Sources. Collection, evaluation, classification, and filing of materials. Principles and techniques of dissemination to individuals and groups. Courses. Career conferences. Counselor training.

Morse, Horace T., and Paul L. Dressel, editors. *General Education for Personal Maturity*. Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Co. 1960. 244 pages. \$4.50. Descriptions of thirteen college courses in personal and social adjustment, marriage and family living, and selection of a vocation. Four chapters describe courses in vocational planning and adjustment at Contra Costa College, Texas A and M, Fairleigh Dickinson, and the University of Minnesota. Includes an appraisal of courses in vocational planning by Henry Borow.

1960-61 *College Entrance Charts for All Accredited Liberal Arts Colleges and Universities and Junior Colleges*. Moravia, New York: Chronicle Guidance Publications. 1960. 52 pages. \$5. Admission requirements, costs, enrollment, control, and church affiliation of 1,250 institutions. Junior college curricula, including terminal courses.

Norris, Willa; Franklin R. Zeran; and Raymond N. Hatch. *The Information Service in Guidance—Occupational, Educational, Social*. Chicago: Rand McNally and Co. 1960. 598 pages. \$6.75. Role and scope of the information service. Occupational classification. Occupational information and its evaluation. Educational and social information and their evaluation. Local sources of information: community surveys and job analysis, follow-up, work experience, and placement. Presentation of information to individuals and groups through libraries, courses, units, social activities. Administering the service.

Parmenter, Morgan D. *Exploring Occupations*, revised. Toronto 5, Canada: Guidance Centre, University of Toronto. 1960. 96 pages. 95¢. A text-workbook on occupations in Canada.

———. *You and University*. Toronto 5, Canada: Guidance Centre, University of Toronto. 1960. 104 pages. \$1. A text-workbook of informa-

tion, suggestions and activities for upper-grade secondary-school students in Canada. Should you go? Where? Admission, financing, and succeeding.

———. *You and Your Career*. Toronto 5, Canada: Guidance Centre, University of Toronto. 1960. 120 pages. \$1. A text-workbook on school, study, getting along with others, spare time, planning your future, looking at you, occupations, placement, and career planning.

Part-Time Employment for Women. Women's Bureau Bulletin 273. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1960. 53 pages. 30¢. Weeks worked. Age, marital status, children, region. Why women work, and where. The future. Suggestions to women seeking part-time work.

Redefer, Frederick L., and Dorothy Reeves. *Careers in Education*. New York: Harper and Bros. 1960. 209 pages. \$4. Career planning for students interested in teaching. How to begin. How to get the job you want. A final chapter on how to teach courses in career planning.

Rosecrance, Francis C., and Velma D. Hayden. *School Guidance and Personnel Services*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon. 1960. 373 pages. \$6. Roles of the school psychologist, social worker, nurse, counselor, administrator, teacher, and others engaged in pupil personnel services. Based in part upon activities of 174 elementary and secondary schools surveyed in 1935, and 59 schools surveyed in 1955.

Sinick, Daniel. *Your Personality and Your Job*. Chicago 11: Science Research Associates. 1960. 49 pages. 50¢. Readable discussion of what personality is and how it affects job choice and job satisfaction.

Super, Donald E., and Phoebe L. Overstreet. *The Vocational Maturity of Ninth-Grade Boys: Career Pattern Study*. Monograph Two. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. 1960. 212 pages. \$4.95. Results of the first year of research on 105 ninth-grade boys in Middletown, New York. Implications for education and guidance.

Twiford, Don D. *Physical Facilities for School Guidance Services*. Bulletin OE-25013. Washington 25, D. C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. 1960. 22 pages. Free.

206 Questions and Answers from the Seminar on Recruiting College Graduates. Manhasset, New York: Institute of Occupational Research, 104 Webster Avenue. 1960. 32 pages. \$2. Edited excerpts from the tape recording of a session which brought together company representatives and college placement officers.

Warters, Jane. *Group Guidance, Principles and Practices*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1960. 428 pages. \$6.25. Concepts from social psychology. Emotional relations between central person and others. Functions of leader. Group discussion. Problem solving. Playing functional roles. Sociometric methods. Sociodrama and role playing. Group counseling. Group guidance in class and home room. Student council. Recreational groups. Large groups. School camps and trips.

Willey, Roy DeVerl. *Guidance in Elementary Education*, revised edition. New York: Harper and Bros. 1960. 462 pages. \$6. Need for guidance. Studying the child. Projective and expressive techniques. Use of tests. Guiding the individual. Guidance as a learning process, in groups, and of children who are different. Evaluation and research. Records and reports.

American Scholars Program

ENDORSED by New York Congressman Robert R. Barry, the following proposal prepared by Christian E. Burckel, Publisher of THE COLLEGE BLUE BOOK, merits the attention of all American secondary-school administrators. Four-thousand copies of this proposal were sent to the following: The President of the United States, Justices of the Supreme Court, Presidents of American Colleges and Universities, key individuals in the United States Office of Education, Members of the United States Senate, Members of the House of Representatives, Governors of states and territories, key individuals in State Departments of Education, and other selected key individuals associated with American education.

A PROPOSAL

To Establish a Program of Selecting

AMERICAN SCHOLARS

Comparable to Rhodes Scholars

Under the NATIONAL DEFENSE EDUCATION ACT

Since time immemorial, the defense of a nation has been entrusted to its Armed Forces.

In keeping with that traditional practice, the newly created United States of America established a Military Academy at West Point in 1802, a Naval Academy at Annapolis in 1845, a Coast Guard Academy at New London in 1876, an Air Force Academy at Colorado Springs in 1954, and a host of Armed Forces Graduate Schools, Officers Candidate Schools, and many career-related educational programs such as USAFI and ROTC.

On September 2, 1958, the Congress of the United States, in recognition of the fact that the defense of our country is no longer the sole responsibility of our Armed Forces, enacted the National Defense Education Act.

This Act provided Federal support to American education to the end that: the fullest development of the mental resources and technical skills of our Youth may be achieved; the talented of our nation may be identified and afforded an opportunity for higher education; and, that elementary and secondary education may be strengthened, especially in Science, Mathematics, and Modern Foreign Languages.

The preliminary results of the research undertaken by the staff of THE COLLEGE BLUE BOOK (not as yet completed) indicate that the National Defense Education Act, if continued and adequately supported, will achieve its stated objectives in the foreseeable future. However, there is needed an additional consideration—the recognition that our physicists, chemists, biologists, mathematicians, engineers, doctors, dentists, social

scientists, educators, and other professionals as well as their supporting technicians, are being urged to become qualified to join our Defense Team.

To mobilize immediately our Intellectuals who are not now enrolled in our Armed Forces Academies and other defense facilities, it is hereby proposed that they be offered the same recognition and financial support currently accorded our future generals and admirals and their staffs.

Some 10,000 cadets and midshipmen are attending our West Point, Annapolis, New London, and Colorado Springs Academies, and an undetermined additional number are students in our Colleges and Universities, the War College, Officer Candidate Schools, Institutes, and other Federally supported programs.

All candidates for professional and technical rank in our Armed Forces are selected on the basis of OUR need for THEIR services; regardless of (their) financial need, or reason for choosing their careers. The only criteria employed in their selection are that they be physically, mentally, and morally fit for service to our Nation upon completion of their education and training.

They are given board and room; their tuition is paid; their books, clothing (uniforms), and laboratory equipment are supplied; they are kept physically fit by medical and dental care, and are required only to devote their full time and attention (12 months per year) to the successful completion of prescribed curricula.

It is hereby proposed:

that an adequate number of talented young men and women be designated as "AMERICAN SCHOLARS";

that their physical and educational needs be met on the same basis that now obtains at our Armed Forces Academies;

that no new Academy be built, but, that the AMERICAN SCHOLAR be permitted to attend any institution of higher learning that offers the curriculum leading to mastery in the field of his (or her) choice;

that the number of AMERICAN SCHOLARS, the method of their selection, and the amount of financial support, be established by competent cognizant individuals.

Respectfully submitted,

CHRISTIAN E. BURCKEL

Yonkers, New York
15 March, 1961

P.S.

It is requested that individuals write to me, expressing their views and making suggestions for the implementation of this proposal. I may have an opportunity to present those views and suggestions to Congress. However, they will be incorporated in the article I shall prepare for publication in the NASSP BULLETIN, and copies will be sent to our respondents.—C.E.B.

1961 Summer Session Courses on Junior High School Education in Colleges and Universities

Compiled by J. LLOYD TRUMP AND MONICA M. FULLER

THE Committee on Junior High-School Education of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals presents its seventh annual survey of summer-session courses, conferences, and workshops specifically devoted to the junior high school.

The Committee sent requests to more than 300 leading colleges and universities for information on title and designation of junior high-school course, inclusive dates, and name of instructor. Of those institutions responding to the request, 95 reported one or more summer-session courses on the junior high school, 25 reported that comprehensive courses in secondary education included junior high-school education, and 37 replied that they had no summer courses.

Although a second request was sent to all institutions not replying to our first request, it is possible that some colleges and universities offering summer session courses on the junior high school may not be listed. However, the Committee believes that this survey is reasonably comprehensive and hopes that principals, teachers, students, and professors may find it helpful.

The Committee on Junior High-School Education is grateful to the colleges and universities for their help in making the seventh annual survey possible. All will receive a copy of this publication.

Committee on Junior High School Education:

WILLIAM T. GRUHN, *Professor of Education*, University of Connecticut, Storrs, Connecticut

CLAYTON E. BUELL, *Assistant to Associate Superintendent*, Philadelphia Public Schools, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

JOHN V. MAIER, *Principal*, Wilson Junior High School, Muncie, Indiana

GENE D. MAYBEE, *Principal*, Tappan Junior High School, Ann Arbor, Michigan

CHARLES S. MORRIS, JR., *Principal*, Eureka Junior High School, Eureka, California

PAT WOOSLEY, *Principal*, Highland Park Junior High School, Dallas, Texas

ELLSWORTH TOMPKINS, *Executive Secretary*, NASSP; *ex officio*

J. LLOYD TRUMP, *Associate Secretary*, NASSP; *Secretary*

J. Lloyd Trump is Associate Secretary and Monica M. Fuller is a Staff Member, both in the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. Washington, D. C.

Information supplied by the colleges and universities is listed subsequently by state, by institution, by number and title of course, and by name of instructor. If no name is listed, the instructor had not been decided upon at the time the information was sent. We regret that material submitted after March 15 could not be included in the tabulation.

The following universities responded to our inquiry listing courses in the general area of secondary education where special provisions will be made for junior high-school teachers and administrators:

The University of Akron, Akron, Ohio
Auburn University, Auburn, Alabama
Bradley University, Peoria, Illinois
Brigham Young University, Provo, Utah
University of Delaware, Newark, Delaware
Dickinson State Teachers College, Dickinson, North Dakota
Eastern Washington College of Education, Cheney, Washington
Fairleigh Dickinson University, Rutherford, New Jersey
Georgetown University, Washington, D. C.
Humboldt State College, Arcata, California
Kent State University, Kent, Ohio
Kutztown State College, Kutztown, Pennsylvania
Los Angeles State College of Applied Arts and Sciences, Los Angeles, Calif.
Millersville State College, Millersville, Pennsylvania
Northeast Missouri State Teachers College, Kirksville, Missouri
Ohio University, Athens, Ohio
Pennsylvania State University, University Park, Pennsylvania
University of Rhode Island, Kingston, Rhode Island
Texas College of Arts and Industries, Kingsville, Texas
University of Vermont, Burlington, Vermont
Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri
Wayne State University, Detroit, Michigan
Western Maryland College, Westminster, Maryland
College of William and Mary, Williamsburg, Virginia
St. John's University, Jamaica, New York

The following institutions responded that they did not offer junior high-school education courses:

Alfred University, Alfred, New York
The University of Arizona, Tucson, Arizona
Bakersfield College, Bakersfield, California
Bloomsburg State College, Bloomsburg, Pennsylvania

University of Buffalo, Buffalo, New York
Danbury State College, Danbury, Connecticut
Duquesne University, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania
East Stroudsburg State College, East Stroudsburg, Pennsylvania
Edinboro State College, Edinboro, Pennsylvania
Fairmont State College, Fairmont, West Virginia
Florida Agricultural and Mechanical University, Tallahassee, Florida
Fresno State College, Fresno, California
George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee
University of Hawaii, Honolulu, Hawaii
Los Angeles City College, Los Angeles, California
University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, New Mexico
University of North Dakota, Grand Forks, North Dakota
Northern State Teachers College, Aberdeen, South Dakota
University of Omaha, Omaha, Nebraska
Paterson State College, Paterson, New Jersey
University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania
Phoenix College, Phoenix, Arizona
University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania
Sacramento State College, Sacramento, California
University of Santa Clara, Santa Clara, California
Southeastern Louisiana College, Hammond, Louisiana
Southern State College, Magnolia, Arkansas
State Teachers College, Minot, North Dakota
Syracuse University, Syracuse, New York
Temple University, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania
University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tennessee
Texas Christian University, Fort Worth, Texas
Tuskegee Institute, Tuskegee Institute, Alabama
Virginia State College, Petersburg, Virginia
Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio
Wisconsin State College, Superior, Wisconsin
Wisconsin State College, Whitewater, Wisconsin

The following several pages list by states the higher educational institutions that will offer 1961 summer session courses and workshops on junior high school education.

List of Colleges and Universities Offering Courses on the Junior High School, 1961 Summer Session

<i>Institution</i>	<i>Course No. and Name</i>	<i>Dates</i>	<i>Professor</i>
California			
Long Beach State College Long Beach	Education 222, The Junior High School	June 19-July 28	Daniel McNaughton
Occidental College Los Angeles	Music S124, Techniques for Teaching Music in Junior and Senior High School	June 23-July 29	Olap M. Frodsham
University of California Berkeley	Education S172, Junior High School Education	June 19-July 29	S. E. Torsten Lund
University of Southern California Los Angeles	Education Sc. 551, Junior-High Workshop Education Sc. 593, Core Curriculum Laboratory	July 17-July 28 July 31-August 11	Dave Schwartz William Georgiades
University of the Pacific Stockton	Psychology S132, Psychology of Adolescence Education S295b, Seminar in Junior High School Education	June 19-July 21 July 24-August 25	Wilfred M. Mitchell Carl D. Lang
San Francisco State College San Francisco	Education S144.3, Reading for Seventh and Eighth Grades Psychology S132, Adolescent Psychology	June 26-August 4 June 26-August 4	Mrs. V. Rogers Miss Ling
San Jose State College San Jose	Education 233S, Seminar in Junior High School Education Mathematics 102S, Topics from Adv. Mathematics for Junior High School Mathematics 102S, Mathematics 110S, Mathematics 111S, NSF Institute in Mathematics for Teachers of Junior High School	June 26-August 4 June 26-August 4 June 26-August 4	Marshall B. Miller James R. Smart Leonard I. Holder, Director, et al.
Stanford University Stanford	Science Education 374s, Teaching Junior High School Science The Junior High School	June 26-August 4	John L. Rhoades Harry T. Jensen

<i>Institution</i>	<i>Course No. and Name</i>	<i>Dates</i>	<i>Professor</i>
Colorado			
Colorado State College Greeley	Education 216a, Junior High School Work- shop	June 12-June 22	Fred A. Sloan, Jr.
	Education 216b, The Junior High School	June 24-August 18	Fred A. Sloan, Jr.
	Education 302, Seminar in Evaluating and Improving Junior High School Instruc- tional Programs	June 24-August 18	Fred A. Sloan, Jr.
	Fine Arts 241, Craft Processes in Grades 7, 8, and 9	June 24-August 18	Richard Ball
	Fine Arts 240, Art Education in Grades 7, 8, and 9	June 24-August 18	John Tryba
University of Colorado Boulder	U. Psychology 464-2, Child and Adolescent Psychology	June 16-July 21 July 24-August 25	Weatherley, Emerich, and Weatherley Kress
	U. Education 442-2, Developing Reading Skills in the Junior and Senior High School	July 24-August 25	
	U. Education 481-2, Literature for Adoles- cents	June 16-July 21 July 24-August 25	Vander Beek Vander Beek
	Education 541-2, Core Curriculum	July 24-August 25	Johnston
	Education 567-2, Junior High School Edu- cation	July 24-August 25	Van Dyke
University of Denver Denver	11-422, Junior High School Education	June 19-July 21	Samuel Stone
Connecticut			
University of Bridgeport Bridgeport	Education 455, Programs for Early Second- ary Youth	June 26-July 27	
	Education 456, Practices in Early Secondary Education	July 31-September 1	
University of Connecticut Storrs	Education 327, The Junior High School Workshop on Junior High School Problems	July 3-August 4 July 16-July 21	William T. Gruhn William T. Gruhn Victor E. Pitkin

<i>Institution</i>	<i>Course No. and Name</i>	<i>Dates</i>	<i>Professor</i>
District of Columbia The American University Washington	S21.332, Principles of Junior High School Education	July 21-August 25	B. W. De Shazo
The George Washington University Washington	Mathematics 105, Topics in Modern Algebra with Applications to High School Mathematics	June 19-August 11	Francis E. Johnston
Howard University Washington	Education S155, Teaching Procedures in the Junior High School	June 19-July 29	Mrs. H. H. Bracey
Florida Florida State University Tallahassee	Education 411, The Junior High School Education 411-M (Modified)	June 20-August 11 June 20-July 28	Virgil Strickland Virgil Strickland
University of Florida Gainesville	EDS. 303 The Junior High School EDS. 601, The Junior High School Curriculum	June 19-August 11 June 19-August 11	Jack E. Blackburn Jack E. Blackburn
Idaho University of Idaho Moscow	Workshop in the Junior High School	July 3-July 21	Hervon L. Snyder
Illinois Illinois State Normal University Normal	400, Workshop for Junior High School Teachers and Principals 410, The Junior High School Ed. 403, Junior High School Education	July 17-July 28 June 19-August 11 June 26-August 4	Henry Hermanowicz Henry Hermanowicz Ida Simmons
National College of Education Evanston	Education 345, Junior High School Curriculum	June 19-August 11	Albert K. Tink
Northern Illinois University DeKalb	Education 433, Junior High School Organization and Problems Secondary Education 469, Workshop: Junior High School Administration and Curriculum	June 19-August 11 June 19-June 30	Robert L. Nash I. I. Nelson
Southern Illinois University Carbondale	425, Social Science Workshop for Teachers of Intermediate Grades Education 440, Administration and Supervision of Junior and Senior High Schools	June 26-July 15 June 19-August 12	Cacioppo Harold C. Hand and Charles M. Allen

<i>Institution</i>	<i>Course No. and Name</i>	<i>Dates</i>	<i>Professor</i>
Indiana			
Ball State Teachers College Muncie	Education 324.1, Psychology of Adolescence	June 12-July 14	Lloyd Naramore
Butler University Indianapolis	Education 381, Junior High School	June 12-July 14	Maurice Eash
Indiana State Teachers College Terre Haute	528, The Junior High School	June 13-August 4	William R. Davenport
Indiana University Bloomington	4-522, Adolescent Psychology	June 13-July 18	Marguerite Malm
	4-522, Adolescent Psychology	July 19-August 23	James Hafner
	4-597, Junior High School Problems	June 13-July 18	Joseph Ellis
	Education S505, The Junior High School	June 14-August 11	Maurice A. McGlasson
	Education S528, Workshop in Junior High School Administration	July 24-August 9	Maurice A. McGlasson
	Education S514, Improving the Teaching of Reading in the Junior and Senior High School	June 14-August 11	
	Music E543, Music in American Schools Today (Junior High School)	July 17-July 28 or July 17-July 21	
Purdue University Lafayette	Education 631, The Junior High School	June 19-August 11	Frank J. Woerdehoff
Iowa			
Drake University Des Moines	Education 282, The American Junior High School	June 12-July 21	Victor Mastin
Iowa State Teachers College Cedar Falls	21:1786, The Junior High School	June 19-August 11	Oscar Thompson
	20:1609, Psychology of Adolescence	June 19-August 11	Oscar Thompson
	Mathematics Institute for Junior High School Teachers	June 19-August 11	Irvin H. Brune
	Summer Institute in Earth Science for Junior High School Teachers in Science	June 19-August 11	Dorothy Matala
	Workshop, Junior High School Air Space Education Study	July 10-July 28	William H. Dreier
	Workshop, Mathematics and Science for Superior Pupils at Grades 7, 8, and 9. Will meet daily.	June 19-August 11	Ross A. Nielsen

<i>Institution</i>	<i>Course No. and Name</i>	<i>Dates</i>	<i>Professor</i>
Iowa State University of Iowa Iowa City	7:67, Methods and Materials: Junior and Senior High School Music 7:300 or 25:300, Music Workshop for the Junior and Senior High School Music Teacher 7:192, Junior High School Organization & Administration	June 14-August 9 June 26-June 30 June 14-August 9	Professor Edwin Gordon Neal Glenn
Kansas University of Kansas Lawrence Kansas State College Pittsburg	157, The School Health Program 227, The Core Curriculum 211, The Junior High School	June 7-August 8	Strait K. Edwards Guy Conrod
Kentucky University of Kentucky Lexington	Education 735, The Core Program in the Secondary Schools	June 19-August 11	Lucile L. Lurry
Louisiana Louisiana State University Baton Rouge	Education 229, The Junior High School		R. L. W. Schmidt
Maine University of Maine Orono	Education C 24s(124s), Planning the Junior High School Curriculum Education H21s (121s), Principles and Practices in Junior High School	July 10-August 18 July 10-August 18	Clayton E. Buell Wilbur H. Marshall Clayton E. Buell Wilbur H. Marshall
Maryland University of Maryland College Park	Education 130, The Junior High School Education 134, Materials and Procedures for the Secondary School Core Curricula Mathematics 109, NSF Institute in Mathematics for Junior High School Teachers	June 26-August 4 June 26-August 4 June 26-August 4	Cramer La Follette Jackson
Massachusetts Boston College Chestnut Hill Boston University Boston	Institute for Junior High School Supervisors and Principals ES, 703, Secondary School Curricula: Junior High School Status and Trends	July 17-July 21 July 11-August 20	Sister M. Josephina Howard B. Leavitt

<i>Institution</i>	<i>Course No. and Name</i>	<i>Dates</i>	<i>Professor</i>
Harvard University Cambridge	Introduction to Team Teaching on Elementary and Junior High School Level	June 29-August 15	Raymond W. Blaisdell
Michigan Central Michigan University Mt. Pleasant	Education 501, Junior High School Curriculum	June 19-July 28	Harold Telfer
	Education 578, Seminar in Junior High School Teaching	June 19-July 28	Harold Telfer
	Education 426A, Teaching Basic Skill Subjects in the Junior High School	June 19-July 26	Robert J. Fisher
	Education 426B, Teaching of Geography in Elementary and Junior High Schools	June 19-July 26	Edward C. Prophet
	Education 821b, Core Curriculum	June 19-July 26	George Myers
	Education 844, Junior High Workshop	July 31-August 11	Charles A. Blackman
	D151, Teaching of Junior High School Mathematics	June 26-August 5	Payne
University of Michigan Ann Arbor	D191, Core Curriculum in Secondary Schools	June 26-August 5	Dolan, Lane
	C120, Mental Hygiene of Childhood and Adolescence	June 26-August 5	McClusky, Morse
Minnesota University of Minnesota Minneapolis	Educ. Administration 167, The Junior High School	June 12-July 14	Samuel Popper
	Music Education 110, Junior High School Music Education Workshop	July 17-August 18	Arnold Caswell
Mississippi Mississippi Southern College Hattiesburg	Education 513, Organization and Administration of the Junior High School	June 8-August 20	Lamar Moody
Missouri Central Missouri State College Warrensburg	Education 204, Administration and Management of Junior High School	June 9-August 18	
Southwest Missouri State College Springfield	Mathematics 120, Fundamental Mathematical Concepts—Junior High School	June 12-July 21	Carl V. Fronabarger
	Mathematics 130, Problem Solving—Junior High School	June 12-July 21	E. Howard Matthews

<i>Institution</i>	<i>Course No. and Name</i>	<i>Dates</i>	<i>Professor</i>
University of Missouri Columbia	D430, The Junior High School	June 12-August 4	Neil C. Aslin
Montana Montana State College Bozeman	Education 405, The Junior High School	July 17-August 18	C. V. Erickson
Montana State University Missoula	438, The Junior High School	July 17-August 18	Frank J. Watson
Nebraska Nebraska State Teachers College Kearney	Education 411, The Junior High School		
University of Nebraska Lincoln	Sec. Education 246, The Junior High School Ed. Psychology 269, Psychology of Adolescence	June 12-August 4 June 12-August 4	Rex K. Reckewey William Jensen
Nevada University of Nevada Reno	El. Education 330, Guidance in Elementary and Junior High School Sec. Education 442, Junior High School Instruction Sec. Education 548b, Problems in the Improvement of Reading in Junior High School	June 26-August 4 June 26-August 4 June 26-August 4	Ruth C. Boyle Leonard Pourchot Grimes
New Jersey Seton Hall University South Orange	Education 111, Psychology of Learning Se. 112, Procedures of Teaching in Grades 7-12	July 5-August 12 July 5-August 12	Thomas Ho Francis Boccia
New Mexico New Mexico State College University Park	Education 604, NDEA Counseling and Guidance Institute (Intern.)	June 12-July 21	
New York Colgate University Hamilton	Junior High School Workshop	August 6-August 11	A. H. Lauchner

<i>Institution</i>	<i>Course No. and Name</i>	<i>Dates</i>	<i>Professor</i>
City College New York	Education 262, Methods of Teaching in the Junior High School	June 19-August 11	Nathan Jacobson
Cornell University Ithaca	Rural Ed. S391, Junior High School Education	June 28-August 11	Gordon F. Vars
	Rural Ed. S394, Seminar in Junior High School Education	June 28-August 11	Mauritz Johnson, Jr.
	Workshop: Improving Junior High School Programs in Small Six-Year Secondary Schools	July 3-July 21	Mauritz Johnson, Jr. <i>et al.</i>
New York University New York	130.171, Guidance by the Junior High School Teacher	June 19-June 30	Gleenn S. Thompson
	230.45, Junior High School Organization	July 5-July 21	Joseph O. Loretan
	230.46, Junior High School Curriculum	July 24-August 11	Joseph O. Loretan
	230.85, Organization and Management of the Junior High School	July 5-July 21	G. Derwood Baker
	230.86, Administration of the Junior High School	July 24-August 11	G. Derwood Baker
State University Albany	Education 225, Educational Problems at the Early Secondary Level (Junior High School)	July 3-August 11	Hugh M. Smith
	Education 229, Psychology of Adolescents	July 3-August 11	Cathryne H. Sivers
State University Buffalo	Education 529, Adolescent Psychology	July 5-August 11	John H. Rosenbach
	Education 532, Early Secondary School Education	July 5-August 11	Abel Fink
State University Cortland	Education 819, The Junior High School Program	July 5-August 12	Edgar King
	Education 831, The Junior High School Curriculum	July 5-August 12	Joseph Mack
State University Geneseo	Education 104, Psychology of Adolescence (Under-Grad.)	July 3-August 11	John J. Smith
	Education 1113, Principles of Early Secondary School Education (Graduate Course)	July 3-August 11	Gaile A. Carbaugh

<i>Institution</i>	<i>Course No. and Name</i>	<i>Dates</i>	<i>Professor</i>
Teachers College, Columbia University New York	TP3203S, Psychology of Early Adolescence	July 3-August 11	George Sheviokov
	TA3421S, Administration of the Junior High School	July 3-August 11	David B. Austin
	TY3408S, Problems in Junior and Senior High School Teaching	July 3-August 11	Phil C. Lange
	TY4302S, Educational Programs for Junior High School Youth	July 3-August 11	Arno Bellack
	TW3634S, Teaching Social Studies in Junior High Schools	July 3-August 11	Lawrence A. Fink
State University Fredonia	Education 544, The Early Secondary School Curriculum	July 5-August 11	William Olcott
	Education 575, Principles of Learning in the Junior High School	July 3-August 11	
	Education 576, Language Arts in the Junior High School	July 3-August 11	
	Education 577, Mathematics in the Junior High School	July 3-August 11	
	Education 578, Science in the Junior High School	July 3-August 11	
State University Oneonta	Education 579, Citizenship Education in the Junior High School	July 3-August 11	
	Education 580, Seminar in the Problems of the Junior High School	July 3-August 11	
	Education 624, Mathematics in Early Secondary Education	July 3-August 11	John P. Downes
	Education 625, Science in Early Secondary Education	July 3-August 11	Emery Will
	Education 626.5, Language Arts in Early Secondary Education	July 3-August 11	Robert Rounds
	Education 628.1, Social Studies in Early Secondary Education	July 3-August 11	David Brenner

<i>Institution</i>	<i>Course No. and Name</i>	<i>Dates</i>	<i>Professor</i>
State University Potomdam	Education 514, Teaching of Reading in Elementary and Early Secondary Schools		John McGrath
	Education 502, Seminar in Early Secondary Problems		Edward Martelle
	Education 503, Early Secondary Methods and Materials		O. W. Satterlee
	Music Education 587, General Music in the Junior and Senior High School		Mary English
	Psychology 502, Adolescent Psychology		Harry Kristiansen
	Mathematics 503, Introduction to Modern Algebra		William Sloan
	Science 549B, Seminar, Frontiers in Junior High School Science and Mathematics		Staff
	Education 130, English Program in Junior High School	July 3-August 11	Raymond Bridgers
	Education 131, Social Studies Program in Junior High School	July 3-August 11	Robert McManus
	Education 132, Math Program in Junior High School	July 3-August 11	John Schluep
State University Plattsburgh	Elementary-Junior High Teacher Conference	July '13	
	Education 543s, Teaching Social Studies in the Early Secondary School	July 3-August 11	John H. Hunt
	Education 544s, Teaching English in the Early Secondary School	July 3-August 11	Mollie K. Wild
North Carolina University of North Carolina Chapel Hill Western Carolina College Cullowhee	Education 196, The Junior High School	June 8-July 18	Neill Rosser
	Education 437i, Guidance in the Junior High School	June 19-June 30	Roy Heath
	Education 538j, Investigations in Junior High School Program	July 17-July 28	Eugene Kitching

<i>Institution</i>	<i>Course No. and Name</i>	<i>Dates</i>	<i>Professor</i>
Ohio			
Bowling Green State University	Mathematics 223; 224; 225, NSF Institute for Junior High School Math Teachers	July 20-August 25	Bruce Vogeli
Bowling Green	Psychology 212, Adolescent Psychology	June 19-July 21	Clark W. Crannell
Miami University	Education 521, The Junior High School	July 24-August 25	Carey T. Southall
Oxford	Education 676, Teaching in the Core Program	July 17-August 18	Frederick Cyphert
Ohio State University	Education 704, Laboratory Study of University School (Junior High School Level)	June 19-July 15	Herbert L. Coon
Columbus	Education 799K, Workshop for Principals and Supervisors of Junior and Senior High Schools	July 17-August 4	Hugh D. Laughlin
University of Toledo	Education 418, Workshop—The Junior High School	July 24-August 4	Harold Rapson
Oregon			
Eastern Oregon College	Education 507 Seminar, Subject Matter Organization for the Junior High School	June 19-August 11	Floyd C. Hill
La Grande	Education 431C, Junior High School Curriculum	July 31-August 11	Max McKinney
Oregon State College	Education 484, The Junior High School	June 19-August 11	John Schules
Corvallis	Education 408, Workshop, Adolescent Problems	August 14-August 25	
Portland Extension Center	Psychology 461, Developmental Psychology—Adolescence	June 19-August 11	
Portland	Education 484, The Junior High School	June 19-August 11	Wilson Ivins
University of Oregon	Education 268, Diagnostic and Developmental Reading in the Junior High School	June 26-August 4	Maurie Hillson
Eugene			
Pennsylvania			
Bucknell University	The Modern Junior High School	June 26-August 4	
Lewisburg			
Rhode Island			
Rhode Island College		June 26-August 4	
Providence			

<i>Institution</i>	<i>Course No. and Name</i>	<i>Dates</i>	<i>Professor</i>
South Carolina University of South Carolina Columbia	Education 112, Adolescent Growth and Development	June 12-August 12	Eva D. Williamson
Texas University of Houston Houston	SED 661, Seminar in Junior High School Education	July 18-August 28	William J. Yost
University of Texas Austin	Education 384K, Practicum in Junior High School Administration	June 19-July 8	Alexander J. Plante
Virginia University of Richmond Richmond	Education S379, Psychology of Adolescence	June 12-July 21	H. J. Cross
Washington Washington State College Pullman	413, Junior High School Organization and Curriculum	June 12-August 4	Gordon Rutherford
University of Puget Sound Tacoma	Education 689, Block-of-time Teaching in the Junior High School (Graduate Course) Education 690, Reorganization of the Secondary School (Graduate Course)	August 7-August 18 July 10-July 14	Mary Sullivan J. Lloyd Trump
West Virginia West Virginia University Morgantown	Education 285, The Junior High School	June 12-July 21	Benjamin H. Bailey
Wisconsin University of Wisconsin Madison	Education 223, Issues in Junior High School Education	June 19-August 11	John J. Goldgruber
Wisconsin State College River Falls	Education 174, The Junior High School Curriculum	June 12-August 4	Allan Siemens

<i>Institution</i>	<i>Course No. and Name</i>	<i>Dates</i>	<i>Professor</i>
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The Book Column

Professional Books

AUSTIN, MARY C., Director. *The Torch Lighters: Tomorrow's Teachers of Reading*. Cambridge 38: Harvard University Press, 79 Garden Street. 1961. 207 pp. \$1. A Harvard study group who spent the last year traveling around the country to see how future teachers of reading are trained in college points out that, in most cases, the best college students are not interested in a teaching career. Those that select education as their choice do not receive enough course work in the teaching of reading and, what is worse, they often are sent to local schools to "practice teach" under the guidance of a teacher who frequently uses out-dated techniques.

Unfortunately, says the report, many of these neophyte teachers receive no further assistance after graduation since few school principals and supervisors are trained to guide the beginning teacher in matters of reading content or performance. To improve present conditions, the Harvard group points out that the quality of would-be teachers must first be improved. They recommend tighter admission policies to education courses and a revision of curriculum requirements.

BLOCH, H. A., editor. *Crime in America*. New York 16: Philosophical Library, Inc., 15 East 40th Street. 1961. 365 pp. \$6. Most of the contributions in this volume were first read as papers before the annual meetings of the American Society of Criminology. The first section deals with aspects of the difficult problem of the treatment of the criminal offender, ranging from contradictions in correctional administration to the much debated problem of capital punishment. The second deals with some of the more specialized concerns of modern criminology which do not always find themselves in our standard reference works—crime in the armed forces, homicide on the highways, and the child murderer.

The third part concerns itself with some of the more pressing issues in modern penology, those problems of sex and sanity which touch upon some of the most vital moral issues in contemporary society. The last section deals with the more recent methodological interests in the approach to the study of crime and delinquency, including some observations on the American penchant for ascribing illegality to certain matters of a private and moral concern.

BRAMELD, THEODORE. *Education for the Emerging Age*. New York 16: Harper & Brothers, 49 East 33rd Street. 1961. 244 pp. \$5.00. This volume assesses the weaknesses and strengths of education in coping with the cultural disturbances of the past decade, and especially with those facing the decade ahead. The crisis of our age, the author argues, demands "that we tear away the curtains that conceal from so many learners the most vexing questions of our time—political, social, economic, moral, scientific, religious, cultural." Inclusive appraisals are made of conflicting theories of education, while revolutionary proposals are offered for reorganizing the curriculum, the professional preparation of teachers, and the control of education.

BROWN, AARON, editor. *Ladders to Improvement*. New York 10: Philps-Stokes Fund, 297 Park Avenue, South. 1960. 249 pp. (8½" x 11"). This is a report of a five-year (1955-56 to 1959-60) project for the improvement of secondary schools. It was conducted by the Phelps-Stokes Fund in four states—Alabama, Georgia, Mississippi, and North Carolina—and financed by the General Education Board. The project involved 16 public high schools, 16 colleges, and three resource universities. Efforts were restricted to four areas—languages, mathematics, science, and social studies. This book, in pictures and text describes the project. Also supplementing the book are six brochures—*Pictorial Overview* (46 pp.); *How the Project Operated* (12 pp.); *The Testing Program* (48 pp.); *Workshops* (91 pp.); *Examples of Project Materials* (32 pp.); and *Bibliography* (21 pp.).

CARBER, L. O. *The Yearbook of School Law 1961*. Danville, Illinois: The Interstate, 19 North Jackson Street. 1961. 258 pp. Cloth, \$4.25; paper, \$3.25. This Yearbook is the twelfth in the series begun by Dr. Garber in 1950. The 1961 edition again proves its value by presenting the most important court decisions of the past year dealing with schools and school districts. Cases of importance and value to all school people have been selected. Every teacher, school principal, superintendent, and school board member will find this book helpful in carrying out his duties. The Yearbooks are equally essential to all professors of education who prepare future teachers and school administrators for the public schools of tomorrow.

Among the particularly significant cases decided during the past year, and discussed in this book, are those dealing with "Legality of Bible Reading," "Right of School Board To Require Vaccination and Immunization as a Pre-requisite to School Attendance," "Authority of a City Council To Provide Transportation for Private School Pupils," "Liability of School District for Tort," "Personal Liability of a School Counsellor," "May a School Board Enact Rules Regulating Student Parking?" "Authority of a School Board To Contract with One of Its Members," "Authority of State Mediation Board To Mediate a Salary Dispute Involving Teachers," and "Authority of a Board To Enter Into a Union Shop Contract."

Other important decisions have to do with such questions as parents' liability for damages resulting from the misconduct of pupils, racial discrimination and segregation, membership in teachers' unions, removal of teachers for refusal to answer questions regarding Communist affiliations, personal liability of officers and professional employees, and tenure (nature of tenure, who is on tenure, etc.).

CLARK, M. M. *Teaching Left-Handed Children*. New York 16: Philosophical Library, Inc., 15 East 40th Street. 1961. 44 pp. \$2.75. This is a report of a survey of lefthandedness and a discussion of the results of the study. Here are discussions of many aids that will be helpful not only to the English teacher in teaching writing, but also to all teachers whose instruction involve writing on the part of students.

Committee on Safety to Life from Fire in Elementary and Secondary School. *School Fires*. Washington 25, D. C.: National Research Council, 2101 Constitution Avenue, N.W. 1960. 64 pp. \$2.50. This is a book which provides "information in an effort to remove the fire hazards in schools so that they will be safe for the occupants. Here is a report that aims to stimulate vigilance on the part of all and to help guide the necessary decisions. Here is a book every school person should read and remember.

CROW, L. D. and ALICE, editors. *Readings in Child and Adolescent Psychology*. New York 18: Longmans, Green & Company, Inc., 119 West 40th Street. 1961. 606 pp. \$3.95. This book is concerned with the dynamics of human behavior from birth through adolescence. Included in the book are reports of child and adolescent studies, and excerpts from the writings of men and women who through years of working with young people have acquired a constructive understanding of the internal and external behavior motivations of the developing individual. The materials are so organized that the Readings can be used either as a basic text or as a supplement to standard textbooks in child and adolescent psychology.

In their search for material, the editors have selected articles and excerpts that highlight significant considerations in human behavior and have arranged them in such a way that the reader can (1) gain insight into the developmental pattern during childhood and adolescence; (2) recognize the responsibility of adults for guiding young people during the formative years; and (3) discover ways in which children and adolescents are motivated to engage in personally satisfying and socially acceptable behavior in a democracy. The selections can be of help to the student in enriching his understanding of growing individuals.

The Doctorate in Education. Washington 6, D. C.: The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, NEA. 1961. 156 pp. This is the proceedings of a conference on a report of an inquiry into conditions affecting the pursuit of the doctoral degree in the field of education. This report was a survey of practices of the 92 institutions awarding doctorates in education at the time of the study. Each institution was asked to report on its practices in preparing individuals for the two degrees: Doctor of Education and Doctor of Philosophy in Education. Part I of the proceedings includes the summaries, conclusions, and recommendations and Part II contains 4 major addresses delivered at the conference.

EARL, A. W. *Experiments with Materials and Products of Industry*. Bloomington, Illinois: McKnight and McKnight Publishing Company, U.S. Route 66 at Towanda Avenue. 1960. 367 pp. This book is based on the theory that, since research and experimentation plays an outstanding part in American technical society, industrial arts students should engage in such experimentation. This book presents procedure for 53 tests classified under 13 major heads.

The research and experimentation approach to teaching in the industrial arts laboratory opens new avenues of learning. The research experience becomes a reciprocal relation between the student and teacher. Together the problem is defined, the solving procedure structured, the experiment conducted, and the findings recorded. Each problem undertaken becomes a new experience for the student and teacher. Together they form a technical team to investigate the materials and products of industry. The accelerating drive to understand the unknown quickens the search to conquest.

Education Associations. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1961. 120 pp. 50¢. This is Part IV of the Educational Directory prepared by the U.S. Office of Education. It is a directory of national and regional education associations; college professional fraternities, honor societies, and national recognition societies; state education association; foundations; religious education association; and international education association. Indexed.

Equipment and Supplies for Athletics, Physical Education, and Recreation. Washington 6, D. C.: American Association for Health, Physical Education,

and Recreation, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W. 1960. 104 pp. \$2.50. The basic purpose of this manual is to facilitate the purchase and use of equipment and supplies in such a manner as to achieve maximum participation and assure the fullest benefits from programs of athletics, physical education, and recreation. Helpful references and sources of additional information and material are included. Pictures, graphs, and charts have been used to illustrate particular features.

This manual is designed for use as a textbook for such courses as Organization and Administration, and Planning of Facilities and Equipment. It will also be a valuable reference for use in courses dealing with various aspects of sports and athletics. It should be included in the professional library of school administrators; administrators and teachers of athletics, physical education, and recreation; coaches; planning consultants; purchasing agents; manufacturers of equipment and supplies; and others in need of practical information concerning these materials.

FRASER, D. M., and EDITH WEST. *Social Studies in Secondary Schools*. New York 10: The Ronald Press Company, 15 East 26th Street. 1961. 482 pp. \$6.50. This book, designed as a textbook for courses in curriculum and methods of teaching secondary-school social studies, will enable teachers to present effectively the rich variety of available subject matter. The organization is based on the needs of the prospective and beginning teacher. Materials to help him identify with the teacher's role, orient him to the field, and introduce him to specific methods and procedures comprise the first sixteen chapters of the book. The prospective teacher, now in a better position to grasp their significance, is next provided with detailed discussions of instructional materials, curriculum development, and historical background. The final chapters provide a bridge from pre-service preparation to in-service growth.

Throughout the book basic principles are closely related to new, specific classroom applications. Problems and techniques of working with slow learners and with gifted students, handling controversial issues, utilizing teacher-pupil planning and small group work, and conducting a well-rounded evaluation program are fully covered. Methods of teaching social studies skills, such as those required for critical thinking and reading social studies materials, are treated at length. Finally, the selected, annotated chapter references guide the reader to further study in the professional literature.

HALSEY, ELIZABETH. *Women in Physical Education*. New York 16: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 200 Madison Avenue. 1961. 264 pp. \$4.50. This book describes the work done by women in the professions of teaching health, physical education, physical therapy, and recreation leadership. This author discusses the qualities that make for success and the general and specialized preparation necessary as well as individual problems of work and study in college.

HARTSHORN, W. C. *Music for the Academically Talented Student in the Secondary School*. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W. 1960. 128 pp. \$1.50. In this publication the author, working with a committee consisting of Eleanor Tipton and the conference chairman—and with the very helpful and pertinent suggestions of each conference member—has suggested course content and developed a "guide for teaching" which, it is hoped, will make a significant contribution to secondary-school music education, particularly for the academically talented student as distinguished from the musically talented student. The musically talented student is indeed fortunate, for, because of his talent, he comes to know music

as a means of communication. It is the premise of this publication, however, that the lives of other students, too, can be made richer through an understanding of good music.

HENRY, D. D. *What Priority for Education?* Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Press. 1960. 98 pp. \$2.50. Education must receive a higher priority in the attitudes and actions of the American people if it is to keep pace with today's needs, let alone face the challenges of the impending explosions in new knowledge, population, and the demand for the products of our schools. David D. Henry, president of the University of Illinois, stresses this theme in defining and discussing the critical issues in the current debate on education and in stressing the urgency as to what must be done and done quickly to preserve, if not to expand, the quality and services of our educational system. The result is an important and timely book for educators, lawmakers, and laymen.

HILL, R. J. *A Comparative Study of Lecture and Discussion Methods.* New York: Fund for Adult Education. 1960. 163 pp. This book is one of four in the series entitled "Studies in Adult Group Learning in the Liberal Arts." The first one was an analytical history of the study-discussion program developed by the Fund's Experimental Discussion Project: *Accent on Learning* by the Director of the Project, Dr. Glenn Burch. The other two—*A Study of Participants in the Great Books Program* (1960, 180 pp.) by James A. Davis, and *Study-Discussion in the Liberal Arts* (1960, 148 pp.) as well as a guide, *Research in Adult Group Learning in the Liberal Arts* (1960, 16 pp.) by John W. Powell—like this one are research studies, resulting from independent investigations conducted by highly competent research groups in the social science. Together they represent the first serious attempt to apply the methods of social science research to the evaluation of adult education programs: in this case, programs of reading and discussion in small groups led by non-professional students of the subject matter rather than by experts in it.

HOLTON, J. S.; P. E. KING; GUSTAVE MATHIEU; and K. S. POND. *Sound Language Teaching.* New York 22: University Publishers Inc., 59 East 54th Street. 1961. 262 pp. \$5.50. This volume is a basic handbook explaining the use of the electronic classroom for modern language teaching. The book is the result of many seminars in which more than 2,000 teachers, school administrators, and state board of education officials participated. Topics that are discussed include: the role of the language laboratory today and tomorrow; the "best" type of language laboratory; equipment, specifications, and budgets; terminology; scheduling; planning a week's work; student motivation; automated programming; supervision; teaching machines; objective oral testing; lab exercises and drills; making master recordings; and the value of visual aids.

In a special section entitled "100 Questions," the authors have set forth those questions concerning the function and use of language laboratories which are most likely to rise in the reader's mind while following the text. Answers are provided by direct referral to specific pages. The volume is profusely illustrated and designed to be used as both a teaching tool and reference book.

HULLFISH, H. G., and P. G. SMITH. *Reflective Thinking: The Method of Education.* New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company, 432 Park Avenue, South. 1961. 285 pp. \$2.95. This book discusses modern educational theory in terms that are judicious as well as informative in an era of change and experimentation with the teaching machine. The authors believe that it is the teacher, in the last analysis, who must be the prime mover in advancing the cause of educational reconstruction. If he is to achieve this, he must under-

stand that the method of thinking is the method of learning and be prepared to develop citizens who are committed to the process of thinking and who believe that the act of free and independent inquiry is essential to the survival of our democracy. The book is designed for courses in the philosophy of education or general methods courses.

JOHNSON, MAURITZ; W. E. BUSACKER; and F. Q. BOWMAN. *Junior High School Guidance*. New York 16: Harper & Brothers, 49 East 33rd Street. 1961. 289 pp. \$4. This guidance book is devoted solely to guidance in the junior high-school level. It describes a program for both large and small schools in which teachers and guidance specialists have distinct, though complementary, responsibilities. Specific procedures in a guidance program are outlined. It contains a study habits checklist; suggested guidance calendar; list of test publishers; and chapter bibliographies. The book is composed of 12 chapters with the following titles: (1) The Place of Guidance in the Junior High School; (2) Adjustment Problems of Junior High-School Pupils; (3) The Orientation Program; (4) Guidance in the Home room, the Classroom, and Student Activities; (5) Improving Adjustment Through Counseling; (6) Guidance and Discipline; (7) Explorations and Self-Appraisal; (8) The Testing Program; (9) Educational and Vocational Decisions; (10) Providing Information About Opportunities; (11) Guidance of Exceptional Children; and (12) Coordination of the Guidance Program.

KANDEL, I. L. *William Chandler Bagley*. New York 27: Columbia University Press, 2960 Broadway. 1961. 143 pp. \$3.50. Commissioned by the executive council of Kappa Delta Pi, which this year celebrates the Fiftieth Anniversary of its founding in 1911, this volume is more than a tribute to Dr. William Chandler Bagley, one of its founders. It presents an account of the professional activities and contributions of an educator who strove always to maintain a balanced point of view during a period of educational ferment in America when divergent philosophies of life and education were proposed and upheld by many. Consistently, Dr. Bagley stressed the importance of sound preparation and recognized professional status of teachers combined with thorough mastery of subject matter, and sought to close the gap between those who stood for academic subjects and those who were responsible for professional subjects.

LACY, DAN. *Freedom and Communications*. Urbana, Illinois. University of Illinois Press. 1961. 103 pp. \$3. America's communications system—its past, present, and future—is reviewed and realistically appraised in this book. We have created a communications system unparalleled in its magnitude, yet there is a growing awareness of its shortcomings in meeting the tremendous demands and challenges of today's rapidly changing world.

The author urges us to take a look at our whole system of communications—books, newspapers, magazines, radio, television, films, schools, libraries, etc.—to assess its adequacies and inadequacies in keeping pace with today's needs and to chart possible public policies for the future. This broad picture of the American communications system, the assessment of its deficiencies, and the realistic proposals offered for public policies to meet future needs make stimulating and worth-while reading for everyone. As the author points out, the values of a free society, by and large, lie on the side of the values of the individual consumer of communication rather than on the side of the values of the producers of communication.

LIST, J. S. *Education for Living*. New York 16: Philosophical Library, Inc., 15 East 40th Street. 1961. 112 pp. \$3.50. This book describes a method of psychotherapy which stresses warmth and love as the two most important elements in the therapeutic process. All the theories and techniques of psychology should serve only as tools to aid the therapist in reaching his client, communicating his love, and eliciting a free and healthy response. In our society, the author points out, too little attention is given to guiding our children toward emotional as well as intellectual maturity, and this unbalance is at the root of most of the problems which affect us today.

MERSAND, JOSEPH. *Attitudes Toward English Teaching*. Philadelphia 39: Chilton Company, 56th and Chestnut Streets. 1961. 375 pp. \$4. From replies from almost 1,250 individuals, the author weaves the candid expressions of opinion into suggestions for the teachers of English. These represent the considered opinions of highly educated and successful persons in their chosen fields. Perhaps out of this exchange of correspondence may come a greater understanding between members of our profession and our successful colleagues in other professions. Their genuine interest in what we are trying to do for the millions of children and youth entrusted to us is heartwarming. Here are the suggestions on the value of English given by colleges and universities, editors, librarians, lawyers, etc.

MILLETT, F. B. *Professor*. New York 11: The Macmillan Company, 60 Fifth Avenue. 1961. 189 pp. \$3.50. The author traces the full span of a teaching career from preliminary studies in school and college through graduate work, early teaching assignments, and the importance of tenure to full professorship and retirement. Despite his personal enthusiasm for teaching, he writes of it as a career with candor and impartiality, noting its drawbacks as well as its rewards.

MITCHELL, H. S. *Manual for School Accounting*. Danville, Illinois: The Interstate, 19 North Jackson Street. 1961. 93 pp. \$3. The book is the first book in School Accounting Series. Anyone responsible for the functions of school business management can profit from the guidelines set forth in this book. This is not a book of abstract theory, nor is it a hand-me-down set of bookkeeping records to try to use in a school system.

Although a very large proportion of public expenditures is for schools, very little attention has been devoted to the development of school accounting systems. Most textbooks on governmental accounting are not specific enough to be used as a guide for the development of a school accounting system. This is especially true if the accountant has had experience only in commercial or industrial work and no training or experience in governmental accounting.

Few school districts have the opportunity to employ an accountant who has had training or experience in governmental accounting. Few school administrators have had either training or experience in accounting of any kind. In many instances, the school accounting records are kept by a person having no more than a high-school course in bookkeeping and very little experience in accounting for either private or public organizations. This book outlines and describes an accounting system for school districts.

NIETZ, JOHN. *Old Textbooks*. Pittsburgh 13: University of Pittsburgh Press, 3309 Cathedral of Learning. 1961. 374 pp. \$6. How Johnny's grandparents and great grandparents learned to read—and spell and write and cipher—is the theme of this book. It shows how Webster Spellers, McGuffey Readers, Ray Arithmetics, and the earliest American histories and geographies carried

across a continent the tools of learning, and the morals and manners of a new way of life.

In these days, when the public schools and teaching methods are more carefully scrutinized and evaluated than ever before, the Nietz history of the first century of American textbooks is of primary interest. The author shows that old textbooks are concrete evidence of what and how America learned from Colonial days to 1900. Educators will find his book rewarding as educational history. Others will find it a nostalgic and pleasant presentation of what educators have thought the young need to know and how they need to learn it.

OPULENTE, B. J., editor. *Thought Patterns, Toward a Philosophy of Business Education*. Jamaica 32, New York: St. John's University Press. 1960. 181 pp. This volume of thought patterns demonstrates the felicitous collaboration of educators and businessmen in an endeavor to investigate the general theme of education and business. Fundamental to this inquiry is recognition of the essential duality of the businessman, a duality which entails two aspects: the man of business and the business of man. The philosophy of business education expounded aims to produce a business manager who is professionally and humanistically literate.

PASSOW, A. *Secondary Education for All*. Columbus 10, Ohio: Ohio State University Press, 164 West Nineteenth Avenue. 1961. 304 pp. \$1.75. The author's report on the English educational system, the third volume in the International Education Monographs series, is the outcome of an academic year's residence and study in England, financed and sponsored by Kappa Delta Pi. In his study of English secondary education, the author has taken a broad and inclusive point of view. He has delved into the traditions of the English people and the evolution of their schools and has made an extensive survey of documents and bibliographies. These have provided a background, but his insights into the English educational system have been mostly the product of his personal visits to the schools, conferences with teachers and administrators, and general observation of instruction and procedure. Because his three children were enrolled in English schools, Mr. Passow was accorded an intimate view of the schools in actual process. Accordingly, he gives more than an academic report "based on sources." His contacts supplemented his considerable reading and gave him the feeling of the schools.

More than merely an outline of the framework of the schools and their organization, this study provides a critical analysis of the workings of an educational system which should have great significance and value. Such controversial issues as the guidance of pupils, the size of schools, examinations, the education of teachers, comprehensive schools, curriculum—all have been examined with acute perception of the problems involved. His sympathetic understanding of English education, its strengths and weaknesses, and his critical interpretation of it provide the background for, and point the way to, consideration of improvements which may be extremely helpful to educators in both England and the United States.

Report of the San Diego TEPS Conference. Washington 6, D. C. NCTEPS, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W. 1961. 377 pp. \$3.50. The San Diego Conference (1960) was the third and last in the series of three cooperative national TEPS conferences on the education of teachers. Deliberations of the conference were devoted to the problems, principles, purposes, and processes of teacher certification.

Discussions in the first and second conferences centered on "The Education of Teachers: New Perspectives" (Bowling Green, 1958) and "The Education of Teachers: Curriculum Programs" (Kansas, 1959). The conferences were co-sponsored by eight, and subsequently nine, major professional organizations, with the co-operation of some 60 single-field associations.

Resource Handbook in Human Relations. Cleveland 14: The Council on Human Relations, 281 The Arcade. 1960. 75 pp. Paper, \$1.15; cloth, \$2.25. This book, attractively designed and printed, contains descriptions and evaluations of nearly 1,000 books, films, drama, dance, and music productions; listings of organizations working in the human relations field; specifics on human relations education; timely pamphlets; and readings on poetry.

RIVLIN, H. N. *Teaching Adolescents in Secondary Schools*, second edition. New York 1: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 35 West 32nd Street. 1961. 495 pp. \$5.50. During the past decade, secondary-school teachers have seen the reappraisal of the curriculum by both educators and laymen, the development of new proposals for changes in the organization of secondary education and in curricular practices, increased concern for the education of bright adolescents, and growing recognition of the impact which population movements have had on the secondary school.

These four factors are reflected in this edition, but not to the exclusion of other major questions that are also important for secondary-school teachers. Schools must adjust to changes in the society they serve, but they must be more than weather vanes which change direction with each breeze. The illustrations in this book of the ways in which the principles of effective teaching are applied have been chosen from the wide array of junior and senior high-school activities, but most of them have been selected from areas that are most likely to be familiar to all teachers.

In the questions suggested for discussion at the end of each chapter, there is little reason for stressing those that ask for nothing more than the repetition of material presented in the body of the chapter. Instead, they should apply to new situations which illustrate the principles discussed in the chapter, indicate the difficulties which arise as these principles are applied, or challenge the premises on which these principles rest. Because the question is often the most effective method of teaching, some of the most important material has been presented in the questions at the end of the chapter rather than in the textual content. So much use has been made of these questions at various colleges that new questions have been added and those that have been found to be most worth while in the earlier edition have been brought up-to-date when necessary.

ROUCEK, J. S., editor. *Sociology of Crime*. New York 16: Philosophical Library, Inc., 15 East 40th Street. 1961. 559 pp. \$10. The scientific approach to criminal behavior is of fairly recent origin—only some seven or eight decades old. The sociologist has a definite contribution to make through his search for the uniformities involved in socially criminal acts. The present volume is the only one in English which surveys broadly the sociology of crime. It also features one of the most neglected areas of the crime problem—comparative international ramifications, especially in the countries behind the Iron Curtain. Contributors to this symposium include university specialists, psychiatrists, law enforcement personnel, educators, and sociologists.

RUNES, D. D. *Letters to My Teacher*. New York 16: Philosophical Library, Inc., 15 East 40th Street. 1961. 111 pp. \$2.75. The author takes

issue with the educational methods practiced in Eastern as well as Western schools which he frequented in his youth. The result is a document of a philosopher counterposing the teachings of earlier generations with present-day systems. The author attributes many of the failings of today to the inadequacy of yesteryear's learning.

SIBLEY, AGNES. *Exchange Teacher*. Caldwell, Idaho: The Caxton Printers, Ltd. 1961. 203 pp. \$2.50. What happens to an American who lives abroad for a year or two, who temporarily "adopts" another country? How does he learn new patterns of daily life and come to understand a great many things that are different? How can the American resident abroad go about helping people to know our own country? These are some of the questions that Miss Sibley answers.

SILVERMAN, H. L. *Psychology and Education*. New York 16: Philosophical Library, Inc., 15 East 40th Street. 1961. 189 pp. \$3.75. The qualities of consistency and comprehensiveness are emphasized in this volume of essays. Chapters on the psychological aspects of discipline, the moral and religious factors in education, the role of democracy in school areas, the psychiatric factors in delinquency, the relationship of religion and psychology, and philosophy and psychology, Existentialism as a contemporary psychology, and the psychological implications in Platonic philosophy—these are but some of the essays that may set off explosive ideas in the reader as the author explores paths that might seem unrelated but which lead to certain integrated conclusions.

SIMPSON, R. E.; W. W. HALL; and R. W. COX. *Recommendations on Public School Support*. Sacramento: California State Department of Education. 1961. 402 pp. A report to the California Legislature organized into five parts: (1) Recommendations to Improve the Structure of Public School Support; (2) Recommendations for Adequate Support; (3) Evaluation and Justification for Recommended Support; (4) Operation of State Support for Public Schools; and (5) Data Relative to the Support of the Public School System.

SIMPSON, R. E., and R. A. MARTINSON. *Educational Programs for Gifted Pupils*. Sacramento: California State Department of Education. 1961. 290 pp. This is the final report of a study of educational programs for gifted pupils. The study was carefully planned to include programs that might be adaptable to a variety of school situations. The evaluation of the progress made by pupils enrolled in these programs has meaning and significance for schools. A total of 17 different types of programs were evaluated within the study. These were classified in three categories: (1) special groupings; (2) acceleration; and (3) enrichment in the regular class. Many programs at both the elementary and secondary levels are appropriate for rural as well as for urban schools. The grade levels represented in the study ranged from first through twelfth.

SLOANE, E. H. *Psychology for Living*. Annapolis, Maryland: The Owl Press, Box 709. 1957. 144 pp. \$1.50. This is a book on applied psychology to serve as a guide for the problems of everyday life. Though it is based on the wealth of research of the modern sciences of man, it never loses sight of the aim to make psychology understandable and applicable to the concrete problems of living in these difficult times.

STOOPS, EMERY, and M. L. RAFFERTY, JR. *Practices and Trends in School Administration*. Boston 17: Ginn and Company, Statler Building. 1961. 576 pp. \$7. This textbook has been written to help graduate students and

on-the-job practitioners in school administration, especially those in central office positions. It presents tested theory translated into practical procedures for busy administrators. Throughout the text the authors stress the placing of administrative procedures upon a policy basis. The co-operative formulation of policies to give direction to administration is possible only when the superintendent exerts creative team leadership. The book's stress upon leadership, policies, and teamwork has a contribution for both graduate students and practical administrators.

As a means of helping superintendents and other school administrators to exert leadership in line with emerging trends, the authors have set forth policies and procedures for (1) sound business management, (2) personnel administration, and (3) community cooperation as a means of continuously improving instruction. The end and goal of all administration must be the furtherance of pupil welfare through better classroom learning.

Sample chapters which help the administrator to facilitate instruction through better business, personnel, and public relations practices deal with such topics as cooperative leadership, finance, insurance, business machines, physical facilities, transportation, health and safety, adult education, supplies, guidance, staff relationships, and others. Many forms, figures, and illustrations have been included for adaptation by busy administrators. This feature makes the book a handy reference to be kept on the administrator's desk.

Study Abroad. New York 22: UNESCO Publications Center, 801 Third Avenue. 1961. 768 pp. \$3. Over 100,000 opportunities for international study and travel are listed in the twelfth edition of this handbook published by UNESCO. These scholarships and fellowships are offered for a wide range of studies by more than 1,700 international and national agencies in 115 states and territories of the United Nations.

The handbook, published in English, French, and Spanish, also includes results of UNESCO's eighth foreign student survey which shows that 200,000 students were enrolled in higher education institutions abroad during the academic year 1958-1959. This represented 1.9 per cent of the world total for enrollment in higher education, estimated at 10,500,000. Ten countries received nearly 70 per cent of these foreign students. They were: the United States, France, Federal Republic of Germany, United Kingdom, U.S.S.R., Argentina, Austria, Switzerland, Canada, and Egypt. The major change last year, however, was the increase in the number of foreign students registered in countries which habitually received few students abroad.

The survey also indicates the countries of origin of foreign students studying in 18 selected countries. From statistics given, it appears that most of the students came from Greece (8,143), United States (7,609), non-self-governing territories under British Administration (6,820), Federal Republic of Germany and German Democratic Republic (6,721), Canada (6,216) and the Republic of China and the Chinese People's Republic (6,003). This twelfth edition also contains a summary of a report on international relations and exchanges in the fields of education, science, and culture submitted by UNESCO to the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations.

SUTTON, ELIZABETH. *Knowing and Teaching the Migrant Child.* Washington 6, D. C.: Department of Rural Education of the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W. 1961. 147 pp. \$3.50. This book deals with one of the 20th century's most urgent frontier problems, a problem growing out of the productive efficiency of American agriculture. With the

utilization of electricity and power machinery, much of the drudgery of farm work seems to have disappeared. Actually, not all of it is gone. Much of what remains falls to the lot of the migrant agricultural workers who follow the crops providing the peak seasonal labor needed in commercial and industrialized farming. For them there is not only drudgery, but a precarious and uncertain livelihood and a meagre existence forever outside the main stream of American life.

Many of these workers are family groups with children of school age. The circumstances of their lives make securing an education an erratic and discouraging experience for them. And many communities where they pause for a few days or weeks, or—at "home base"—a few months, are hard pressed to provide for them. They are forgotten children for whom the "American dream" is no more than a dream. Fortunately they are not wholly forgotten. Many educational leaders, institutions, and agencies are seeking ways to offer these children the educational opportunity they need and deserve.

TARBET, D. G. *Television and Our Schools*. New York 10: The Ronald Press Company, 15 East 26th Street. 1961. 278 pp. \$5. Because television is a relative newcomer to the instructional phase of education, too few teachers and school administrators are experienced in using the medium effectively in the classroom. This book discusses the growing role of educational television in the enrichment of the curriculum. It has been prepared for those who are interested in developing and presenting programs for in-school viewing.

The book describes the techniques essential for direct teaching by television and offers program ideas for school, college, in-service, and adult education purposes. It points out administrative problems which must be faced in conducting programs and explains the importance of proper facilities and equipment. Innumerable school, college, and commercial endeavors are cited throughout the books as examples of what can be accomplished with the medium. Special attention is given to how to use television in interpreting the function of education to the public, and a final chapter is devoted to future prospects for the increasing effectiveness of television in education.

TYLER, R. W., chairman; and N. B. HENRY, editor. *Social Forces Influencing American Education*. Chicago 37: The University of Chicago Press, 5750 Ellis Avenue. 1961. 357 pp. Cloth, \$4.50; paper, \$3.75. This book is Part II of the 60th Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. In Chapter I, Ralph Tyler discusses the purposes and plan of the yearbook. In Chapter II, Vincent Ostrom discusses education and politics. In Chapter III, Theodore Schultz analyzes American education as an investment in economic growth rather than solely as a consumer service. In Chapter IV, Eleanor Bernert and Charles Nam review the changing population picture. In Chapter V, Robert Havighurst discusses social-class influences on American education. In Chapter VI, Merle Borrowman examines traditional values and their influences on American education. In Chapter VII, the chairman of the yearbook committee outlines the ways in which pupils themselves influence education. In Chapter VIII, Myron Lieberman analyzes the influence of educational organizations on the schools and the educational program. In Chapter IX, Wilbur Schramm examines the influence of the mass media on education, emphasizing the field of communications research. Chapter X is designed to summarize the preceding chapters and to interpret the implications of those chapters.

WOOLCOCK, C. W. *New Approaches to the Education of the Gifted*. Morristown, New Jersey: Silver Burdett Company, Park Avenue and Columbia Road. 1961. 122 pp. \$2. This book should be of particular interest to teachers, school administrators, school boards, and parents desirous of inaugurating or improving educational programs for intellectually gifted and talented pupils. The first part of the book gives a careful review of existing research with respect to the gifted and educational approaches to them, and an overview of current practice in our schools for these unusual pupils. The remainder of the book considers objective and research implications for new approaches to the education of the gifted and attempts to spell out the nature, directions, and purposes of the proposed new educational programs for the gifted.

Books for Pupil-Teacher Use

ALDRICH, R. S. *Gertrude Lawrence, as Mrs. A*. New York 10: Globe Book Company, 175 Fifth Avenue. 1961. 448 pp. List, \$3; class price, \$2.25. This book, a biography of a great star, provides a time-listed recipe for reading. It is for readers whose interests are already captured by the make-believe world of the stage and screen. With this ready-made motivation, it is relatively easy to develop an interest in the biography as a literary form. In addition to the story of Gertrude Lawrence, the reader is given a glimpse into the world of the theater, government, education, and literature.

ALLEN, GINA. *The Forbidden Man*. Philadelphia 39: Chilton Company, Book Division, 56th and Chestnut Streets. 1961. 360 pp. \$4.95. The author has given an extra dimension to the problems posed by pigmentation. In the little Southwestern town of Guadalupe, there are three color lines: the ruling Anglos; the uneasy, partially "arrived" descendants of the earlier Spanish settlement; and the Negroes who had been imported in box cars as "legal" slave labor a generation before.

AMON, M. R., and RUTH RAWSON. *Handcrafts Simplified*. Bloomington, Ill.: McKnight & McKnight Publishing Company, U.S. Rte. 66 at Towanda Avenue. 1961. 210 pp. This book offers creative experiences in a variety of media. It brings together material on all of the major crafts. This book will appeal especially to students who have a desire to create original designs. Anyone can experience the pleasure and satisfaction of being creative if he will follow the suggestions outlined in this book. The many illustrations show exactly how to proceed, and the easy-to-understand instructions tell exactly how to go about it step-by-step. Although written so that even the novice can experience immediate success, the book is also an excellent guide for the teacher, as well as the seasoned craftsman. Material on the proper use of tools and present-day application of each medium are completely up to date. A convenient list of "Sources of Supplies" is offered in the back of the book.

ANDERSON, ERICA. *Albert Schweitzer*. Philadelphia 39: Chilton Company, Book Division, 56th and Chestnut Sts. 1961. 122 pp. \$1. The miraculous story of a great man told in pictures and captions.

ANDREWS, WAYNE. *The Autobiography of Carl Schurz*. New York 17: Charles Scribner's Sons, 597 Fifth Avenue. 1961. 343 pp. \$5.95. "A great autobiography," says Allan Nevins. "No other single book of American memoirs, not even John Quincy Adams's long diary, contains so many striking portraits of political and military leaders." Schurz was the friend and champion of Abraham Lincoln. "I soon felt," he wrote after witnessing the debates with

Douglas, "as if I had known him all my life." Campaigning for the Republican party on the eve of the Civil War, Schurz penetrated the facade of Senator Summer, the man who knew "there is no other side." He also guessed the depth of the frustration of William Henry Seward, who was furious that "a little Illinois lawyer" had beat him to the White House. Finally, he sized up Salmon P. Chase, "one of the noblest victims" of the Presidential disease.

ANGLE, P. M.; E. S. MIERS; and NORMAN LACKWOOD. *A Ballad of the North and South*. New York 36: Associated Music Publishers, Inc., One West 47th Street. 1961. 46 pp. In anticipation of the observance of the American Civil War Centennial, 1961-1965, Paul M. Angle and Earl Schenck Miers, and the composer, Norman Lockwood, were commissioned to write a musical work for presentation by the musical organizations of our nation's schools and colleges. The fruit of the collective labor of the three American writers is embodied in this composition for mixed chorus, narrator, and band. This ballad is the only musical work which has been specifically planned for the many occasions of the centennial observance.

Interwoven in this ballad are "No more Shall the War Cry Sever," "Old Abe, Lincoln," "Dixie," "The Bonnie Blue Flag," "John Brown's Body," "The Battle Cry of Freedom," "The Girl I Left Behind," "The Yellow Rose of Texas," "The Battle Hymn of the Republic," "We are Coming Father Abraham," "Kingdom Coming," "Go Down Moses," "Sherman's March to the Sea," "My Captain Does Not Answer," and, "Glory, Glory, Hallelujah."

BAGBY, ROBERT. *Make Your Own Color Prints*. New York 16: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 330 West 42nd Street. 1961. 178 pp. \$4.50. In this easy-to-follow book, the author tells how to become an accomplished color technician and produce beautiful prints in the home darkroom, for considerably less than the cost of good commercial processing. He explains step by step how to make color prints using the new improved color negatives, papers, and chemicals now available—with the same basic equipment for the black-and-white darkroom work. Even the newest of the new processes is included. All phases of the work are covered—from the exposure of the color negative to the retouching, mounting, and finishing of the color print.

BARKER, GEORGE. *Idylls of the King. A Selection of Poems by Alfred Lord Tennyson*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1961. 320 pp. 50¢. A timeless treasury of the author's poems.

BATES, MARSTON. *The Forest and the Sea*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1961. 216 pp. 50¢. The author describes the many forms of life found in nature—the gothic rain forests, the deserts, the sea; the coral reef with its pastel foliage; the four-eyed butterfly fish. He discusses the vast phenomena of the plant and animal worlds, stressing both their separateness and interdependence. Finally, he looks again at the ever-fascinating problem of man's place in nature and his effect on the biological community which surrounds him.

BEIM, JERROLD. *Trouble After School*. New York 36: Scholastic Book Services, 33 West 42nd Street. 1961. 122 pp. 25¢. This is the story of a boy faced with a problem of right and wrong and has the courage to do what he knows is right.

BETTS, M. P. *Tomboy Teacher*. New York 18: Julian Messner, Inc., 8 West 40th Street. 1961. 190 pp. \$2.95. Nancy Adams' big problem, when she returned to her home town to teach first grade, was to live down her

mischievous, tomboy past and be accepted as a mature adult and prove herself as a teacher.

BEYER, A. W. *The Sapphire Pendant*. New York 22: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1961. 179 pp. \$2.95. Set in England during the time of the Napoleonic Wars, this is the story of sixteen-year-old Elizabeth Montgomery, daughter of a British naval captain. Her father's death brings to England Pierre Rochambeau, heir to the Montgomery estate and guardian to Elizabeth.

BISHOP, CURTIS. *Lone Star Leader: Sam Houston*. New York 18: Julian Messner, Inc., 8 West 40th Street. 1961. 192 pp. \$2.95. Sam Houston led Texas out of Mexican bondage, avenged the massacre of the Alamo, and became the young republic's first president. He had a tempestuous career as senator, lawyer, and governor of Tennessee. As a statesman and general, he adventured in two worlds—that of political Washington and the wild frontiers of the West.

BLAINE, JOHN. *The Egyptian Cat Mystery*. New York 10: Grosset & Dunlap, Inc., 1107 Broadway. 1961. 182 pp. \$1. In Chicago, a man speaks into the telephone: "The cat is ready!" With these four words a chain of harrowing events is set in motion which involves Rich Brant and his pal Don Scott in ten days of danger, intrigue, and suspense.

BLOW, MICHAEL, and R. P. MULTHAUF. *Men of Science and Invention*. New York 20: Golden Press, Inc., 630 Fifth Avenue. 1960. 153 pp. \$3.50. This book covers three-and-a-half centuries of the advancements made in American science by men who changed the face of our continent with their tinkering and theories. "Yankee inventiveness" started early, with the adapting and refining of European tools to life in the New World. From there, Americans devised ways to make major inventions useful and available to everyone. Our technical advances have owed much, however, to the vast amount of pure research accomplished by European scientists.

Over 140 illustrations show both European and American inventors and original models of famous American inventions—among them Franklin's generator, Henry's induction coil, and Edison's dynamo. The young reader can see here the changing face of America as the edge of industrialization came to the New World, and get a glimpse of the limitless scope of the new frontiers of science, and the new opportunities for invention created as each frontier is crossed.

BOAK, A. E. R.; P. W. SLOSSON; H. R. ANDERSON; and HALL BARTLETT. *The History of Our World*. Boston 7: Houghton Mifflin Company, 2 Park Street. 1961. 860 pp. \$5.80. The many features of this high-school text—including time device, previews and reviews, reference points with the past—bring fifty centuries of recorded history within the grasp of every student. The imaginative use of charts, illustrations, and maps further strengthens the teenager's understanding of peoples and happenings. This visual presentation is combined with a vivid narrative that makes history come alive.

This basic history text is revised every second year. Accordingly, it has been revised to include such recent events as the collapse of the summit meeting, the worsening situation in Cuba, and the Congo crisis. The events of the past two years are clearly reported and put into proper perspective. This 1961 edition offers a soundly organized, dramatically written panorama of history through the ages, now updated in keeping with our changing world.

BOVA, BEN. *The Milky Way Galaxy*. New York 17: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 383 Madison Avenue. 1961. 229 pp. \$5. This book begins with the age-old question of creation, tells how men of all generations and nations for six thousand years have tried to solve the riddle of the stars, and shows how man today stands on the threshold of an exciting era of exploration and discovery of the planets, the stars, and the universe.

BUCK, P. S. *The Big Wave*. New York 36: Teen Age Book Club, 33 West 42nd Street. 1961. 96 pp. 35¢. The story of the great tidal wave that wreaked destruction on the Japanese.

BULLA, C. R. *The Secret Valley*. New York 36: Scholastic Book Services, 33 West 42nd Street. 1961. 64 pp. 25¢. The story of a family's search for gold in the early days of the discovery of gold in California.

BUNDY, C. E., and R. V. DIGGINS. *Livestock and Poultry Production*, 2nd edition. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1961. 704 pp. \$5.90. This book presents the basic principles and practices in solving production management and marketing problems. This revision has incorporated the latest research and the latest methods used by livestock and poultry men and the recent publications of many state agricultural colleges. It is extensive in its coverage and can be used as a source of information in vocational-agricultural classes in the secondary school.

BUTLER, BEVERLY. *The Silver Key*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company, 432 Park Avenue, South. 1961. 239 pp. \$3. Alwyn's acute shyness among strangers made her hope for solitude on her father's new farm in distant Wisconsin in 1860. Instead, she found there Jesse Vernon, her stepmother's roving young brother, and unwillingly shared in his secret which involved him in burning letters he received and nighttime exits also by way of a tree. There were her fears for her stepmother's health—and Mr. Haines, who gave dark hints about Jesse's past.

CALLAHAN, NORTH. *Daniel Morgan: Ranger of the Revolution*. New York 17: Holt Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 383 Madison Avenue. 1961. 352 pp. \$5. How near we came to losing the War for Independence from Great Britain and how discouragement, despair, and even rebellion reached from the high-ranking officers down through the enlisted men is brought out in this book. Did Benedict Arnold deliberately miscalculate the time it would take for an American expedition to go from Massachusetts to Quebec, the results being months instead of weeks being required on the horrible, dangerous, and devastating journey which took the lives of half the men and ended in failure to take Canada and make it the fourteenth American colony?

CAMPBELL, BRUCE. *The Clue of the Silver Scorpion*. New York 10: Grosset & Dunlap, 1107 Broadway. 1961. 180 pp. \$1. It all starts when Ken Holt and his friend Sandy Allen spot someone trying to break into their convertible. Quick action on the boys' part scares off the would-be thief before he can do more than slash his knife into the car's top.

CANFIELD DOROTHY. *Understood Betsy*. New York 36: Scholastic Book Services, 33 West 42nd Street. 1961. 192 pp. 35¢. This story is of a girl and her relatives.

CARLETON, B. O. *The Secret of Saturday Cove*. New York 17: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 383 Madison Avenue. 1961. 168 pp. \$3.50. David Blake and his sister Sally have grown up with the legend of the Blake treasure, buried on one of the islands off Saturday Cove, a fishing village on the coast of Maine. One day, while lobstering in the bay, David and Sally seek shelter from

a summer storm in an abandoned house on Blake's Island. There they find a musty chart that seems to be a definite clue. Curious and excited, they decide to solve the family mystery.

CARTER, RICHARD. *The Gentle Legions*. New York 22: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 575 Madison Avenue. 1960. 335 pp. \$4.50. This candid and illuminating analysis represents the first book-length appraisal of the big, voluntary health organizations: the American Red Cross, the National Foundation (for Infantile Paralysis), the National Tuberculosis Association, the American Heart Association, the American Cancer Society, and many others. Each year millions of American housewives devote their spare time to the national health groups. These women are "The Gentle Legions." They constitute the largest social and humanitarian movement in the United States today.

CHAMBERLAIN, SAMUEL. *Ever New England*. New York 22: Hastings House, Publishers, Inc., 151 East 50 Street. 1961. \$3.95. This engagement calendar includes in one volume the beautiful photographs of the first five years of *The New England Calendar*. It was made available in response to the many requests for a permanent record of these striking scenes. It also includes an introduction by Donald Moffat. Also available from the same source are: *Springtime in Virginia*, (\$4.50) by Mr. Chamberlain—a companion volume of 322 illustrations selected from the first six years of *The Virginia Calendar*; and *The Flavor of France*, (\$5.95) by Narcisse and Narcissa G. Chamberlain and illustrated by Samuel Chamberlain. This last publication includes the recipes and photographs from the first four years of *The Chamberlain Calendar of French Cooking*, plus an additional 32 pages of text, indexes, and menus.

CHASTAIN, M. L. *Phippen's Palace*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 750 Third Avenue. 1961. 188 pp. \$3. Twelve-year-old Mandy and her elder brother Peter, orphaned and kept grudgingly by a cruel uncle-by-marriage, knew they and their small brother and sister must somehow escape from the half-starved, unhappy existence they led. Early one morning they carried out a well-laid plan and caught the packet boat to New York City.

COHEN, F. C. *Portrait of Deborah*. New York 18: Julian Messner, Inc., 8 West 40th Street. 1961. 191 pp. \$2.95. It all started when Deborah Rose's family decided to move from Chicago without consulting her. It meant forfeiting the piano scholarship toward which she had spent five gruelling years. If her music, which was her very being, meant so little to her family, she'd have nothing to do with it from now on! In an act of defiance and anger, she cut off her long, tawny hair, determined in this way to shed her artist personality and become one of the conforming group that made up the senior high-school class at North Haven.

COOK, J. G. *Our Living Soil*. New York 16: The Dial Press, Inc., 461 Park Avenue, South. 1960. 190 pp. \$3. In this book, the author explains the fascinating science of the soil and the plants that grow in it. Life itself, for city and country dwellers alike, goes on because the soil continues to produce the food we need. He describes how chemical foods are formed in the soil from rocks and water and air. He tells about the microbes that live by the thousands of millions in every handful of soil, and he shows how these tiny creatures help with the chemical transformations that enable the soil to act as a food store for the world.

COYLE, D. C. *The United Nations*. New York 22: The New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1960. 216 pp. 50¢. This book presents an objective, authoritative analysis of UN operations, ex-

plaining the structure of the UN Charter and such organs as the General Assembly, the Security Council, the Economic and Social Council. Discussing problems of current concern to the world, the author analyzes the UN approach to such problems as disarmament, atom control, the Suez, and human rights. A reference section includes a complete UN Charter and a list of principal organs, agencies, and commissions.

———. *The United States Political System*. New York 22: The New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1960. 152 pp. 50¢. This book provides an analysis of the day-by-day, agency-by-agency functioning of the national, state, and local political system in this country. Offering a commentary on the American democratic way of life, it also gives stimulating explanations of the operation of political parties. Federal courts, Congress, government in relation to business, and foreign relations.

CRAVEN, A. O., and WALTER JOHNSON. *American History*. Boston 17: Ginn & Company, Statler Bldg. 1961. 752 pp. \$5.68. This is a new high-school text by two eminent historians. It makes use of both the chronological and topical organization, employing the latter where it is most meaningful. Written in a style, clear-cut and vivid, it enriches and clarifies the more confusing parts of history. Some special features of this book are: a picture story with 11 pages of full-color illustrations, spot maps, and commentary highlighting our history; "The Human Side of History," 23 pages of excerpts from original sources, map program including a 16-page, full-color atlas of the United States in addition to other major maps in color; teaching aids including brief unit introductions to the history to be covered, a time-line of major events, and a map stressing geographic aspects, illustrations on every other page; and an annotated teacher's edition of the text, a teacher's edition of the pupils' *Workbook and Study Guide*, and Unit and Final Tests.

CUTLER, K. N. *The Beginning Gardener*. New York 16: M. Barrows and Company, Inc., 425 Park Avenue South. 1961. 173 pp. \$2.95. Packed full of basic information on gardening, here is a guide to cultivating one's first patch of ground or to growing plants indoors. Starting with a general discussion of plants that will be fascinating to young people or any other beginner, the author then tells how to choose the right spot for the garden and gives the "hows" and "whens" of planting it. She includes here a list of vegetables and flowers—both annuals and perennials grouped by color—with descriptions of each and directions for their individual planting and culture.

DANFORTH, M. E. *A Quaker Pioneer*. New York 16: Exposition Press Inc., 386 Park Avenue South. 1960. 260 pp. \$3.50. This book is the stirring story of a gentle Quaker woman who, despite her inbred aversion to violence, plunged herself into the broiling turmoil and terror of shootings, lynchings, and blood-hound pursuit to help Negro slaves escape to freedom by the Underground Railroad of the Civil War era. Like many intrepid women of this turbulent period, Laura Smith Haviland daily stood toe to toe with disaster, battling for her existence and that of her family.

DAVIS, C. E. *Messages from Space*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead & Co., 432 Fourth Avenue. 1961. 96 pp. \$2.75. This is a book of interest to the student and the alert citizen of the United States who is interested in the potentialities of the space age and its importance as far as our future freedom and well being are concerned. It brings into sharp focus a little-known but essential phase of space exploration.

DEBENHAM, FRANK. *Antarctica: The Story of a Continent*. New York 11: The Macmillan Company, 60 Fifth Avenue. 1961. 264 pp. \$5.50. This book is a factual account of a continent which has changed in significance from an icy waste to a territory of prime importance. The author begins with a resumé of Antarctic events and personalities from the earliest times, then examines the continent itself, discusses its animal life, and goes on to describe how man lives there. He tells of a climate in which there is no decomposition and where no pests can survive, and explains why ten nations are spending vast sums equipping expeditions to collect scientific data there.

DILL, MARSHALL, JR. *Germany*. Ann Arbor, Michigan: The University of Michigan Press. 1961. 500 pp. \$8.75. To understand the vital and formidable role Germany plays in our lives, we must know her past. From the moment Julius Caesar crossed the Rhine to Konrad Adenauer's bootstrap operation, this book gives us the facts of a vast and troubled history. Its epic sweep portrays the men and events of nearly two thousand years—the wandering barbarian tribes; the Teutonic knights; Frederick Barbarossa, the legendary Holy Roman emperor; the fiery trial of the Reformation and the ravages of the religious wars; the reign of Frederick the Great, despot and aesthete; the rise of the Prussian state and the final achievement of unity by the "iron man," Bismarck; the catastrophic upheavals associated with the names of Kaiser Wilhelm II and Adolf Hitler. Weimar, Bayreuth, Munich, Berlin, Nuremberg, Bonn—wherever the national spirit has found expression, the author locates the interplay of conflicting forces that characterizes German history.

DIXON, F. W. *Mystery of the Desert Giant*. New York 10: Grosset & Dunlap, Inc., 1107 Broadway. 1961. 182 pp. \$1. In this new and thrilling adventure, Frank and Joe Hardy embark on one of the most baffling mysteries of their career—a search for a wealthy industrialist who has vanished in the California desert.

DURANT, JOHN. *Highlights of the Olympics*. New York 22: Hastings House Publishers, Inc., 151 East 50th Street. 1961. 160 pp. \$3.95. This book presents an authentic and terse account of the outstanding Olympiad figures, tracing their careers, and recapturing the wonder of their feats. There are facts and tales of the games themselves, the Marathon, track and field performances, with an elaborate index of records. All are seasoned with colorful anecdotes and memorable pictures of the "greatest moments" since the Olympics began.

EPSTEIN, SAM and BERYL. *The First Book of The Ocean*. New York 22: Franklin Watts, Inc., 575 Lexington Avenue. 1961. 72 pp. \$1.95. Oceanographers say there is just one ocean—the vast ocean of the earth in which the continents are only islands. This great body of water, covering nearly three-quarters of the globe's surface, contains myriads of fascinating secrets. What strange forms of life live in the sea? How do the tides work? What causes the ocean's powerful currents?

ESKOW, SEYMOUR. *Barron's Guide to the Two-Year Colleges*. Great Neck, New York: Barron's Educational Series, Inc., 343 Great Neck Road. 1960. 377 pp. (8½ x 11"). \$2.98. This book explains the rapidly growing two-year colleges and their diverse forms—junior colleges, vocational and technical institutes, business training colleges, community colleges. It explains the advantages of two-year colleges which have caused them to increase from less than 10 in 1900 to over 700 today. It points out how such colleges open the door to post-high-school education that many people may have considered

closed because of scholastic, financial, or personal obstacles. A special feature of the directory is the directory of colleges where more than 700 individual two-year colleges are factually summarized. Details include name; location; public, private or religious control; campus size and physical facilities (athletic fields, gyms, stadiums, library, laboratories, dormitories, theaters); enrollment (male, female, or coeducational); admission and graduation requirements; degrees, diplomas or certificates offered; costs, financial aid available; terminal and transfer courses offered and credit allowed toward transfer; evening-extension or special programs; academic calendar; accreditation.

EULENBERG, M. D., and T. S. SUNKO. *Introductory Algebra*. New York 16: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 440 Park Avenue, South. 1961. 302 pp. Readability, teachability, and a mature approach characterize this new introduction to algebra. Designed and written specifically for college students who lack adequate preparation for college algebra or its equivalent, this book incorporates several significant features which insist on a level of intellectual sophistication in the student above that of the average high-school student. Some of these features are: the logical structure of algebra is developed, and postulates for fundamental operations are stated succinctly and incorporated into exercises; introductory material on sets is presented along with optional topics which permits the instructor great leeway in deciding to what extent the more difficult sections on the algebra of sets will be used; the book is conceived in large units of instruction, each unit covering a significant concept or process with accompanying exercises to insure complete understanding; the book includes important and "difficult" topics such as approximate numbers, logarithms, and variation, which are necessary for the better understanding of science courses the student may be taking.

FALLS, C. B. *The First 3000 Years*. New York 22: The Viking Press, 625 Madison Avenue. 1960. 220 pp. (7" x 9 $\frac{3}{4}$ ") \$6.00. This book presents an exciting panorama of events through thirty centuries and shows how life was lived not only among the great and famous, but also among ordinary people. Dynasties, wars, and conquests have their place in the narrative as they necessarily must. But the careers of such great leaders as Hammurabi, Alexander, Ikhnaton, and Augustus Caesar are discussed with balanced understanding of their foibles and follies as well as of their virtues and achievements, so that they appear as real human beings. The affairs of everyday people are pleasantly emphasized to demonstrate the social customs, economy, and religious beliefs and practices that shaped and distinguished the various cultures. Art, architecture, trade and commerce, and military enterprises are specifically exemplified to give a sound basis for appreciation and comparison. Maps help the reader to place the geographical locations in their proper relationship.

FISHER, AILEEN, and OLIVE RABE. *United Nations, Plays and Programs*. Boston 16: Plays, Inc., 8 Arlington Street. 1961. 293 pp. \$4. The aims, purposes, and accomplishments of the United Nations are vividly dramatized in this new collection of original program material for young people. The authors interpret the true spirit of the United Nations with such lively imagination and skill that audiences as well as actors will be impressed by the wide scope and work of the U.N. and its many specialized agencies. This book contains royalty-free, one-act plays, playlets, group readings, poems, songs, recitations, prayers, and toasts. A wide variety of effective classroom or assembly programs may be arranged in combinations suitable for various grade levels.

FRICK, C. H. *The Comeback Guy*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 750 Third Avenue. 1961. 189 pp. \$3.00. It was unthinkable to Jeff Stanley not to be re-elected cheerleader in his senior year. Why, he was one of the best the school had ever had! Even his girl, Tracy, couldn't make him understand what had happened—that he had become so cocksure and swell-headed, that people resented him, no matter how good he was. This is a crisply written, action-filled sports story, but it is much more than that. It delves into the very heart of adolescence, the problems and pitfalls of growing up, the fickleness of popularity.

GARLAND, JOSEPH, and STOKES, JOSEPH, III, editors. *The Choice of a Medical Career*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Company, East Washington Square. 1961. 232 pp. \$5. Presented here is the gradually acquired wisdom of leaders in various fields of medicine, designed to give students or a physician on the threshold of his career as complete a picture as possible of the medical profession and the varied opportunities it offers. It will also be very helpful to the youngster who is undecided about what profession he will enter.

GARRETT, A. B.; J. S. RICHARDSON; and A. S. KEIFER. *Chemistry*. Boston 17: Ginn and Company, Statler Building. 1961. 734 pp. \$5.60. The authors have searched judiciously for the fundamental material that is essential and basic to an understanding of modern chemistry. In a number of selected cases the historical approach has been used to demonstrate the methods of science and to give the student a feeling for the development of scientific knowledge. In many other cases the modern interpretation of chemistry together with modern theories is used in introducing the topics. The essential ideas of the different types of chemical bonding are introduced early and are used throughout. The relationship between atomic structure and chemical properties is used to give meaning to the chemical and physical properties of elements and compounds and to explain the kinds of reactions in which they take part. Throughout the book there has been preserved a reasonable balance between detail, the broad principles of chemistry, and its technology, since all of these elements enter into a challenging and interesting first course.

They have included many of the new concepts of atomic structure, types of chemical bonding, and nuclear chemistry in order to make this textbook strictly up-to-date. This material has been tried and found to be interesting to the student and stimulating to the teacher. As is often the case, much of this material may be new to the student and may only recently have come to the attention of the teacher. This should be true of any good modern book. At the end of almost every chapter will be found additional readings to carry the student even further in a given topic than is possible in a textbook. A wealth of questions and problems for self-teaching and self-testing help summarize each chapter.

GARST, SHANNON. *Broken-Hand Fitzpatrick*. New York 18: Julian Messner, Inc., 8 West 40th Street. 1961. 190 pp. \$2.95. Skilled as a hunter, trapper, Army guide, and Indian agent, Tom Fitzpatrick blazed much of the Oregon Trail. His discovery of South Pass in the Rockies provided a gateway to western expansion. His exploits earned him the reputation as the greatest of mountain men.

GIBSON, CHARLES. *Wandering Beauties*. New York 19: Abelard-Schuman, Limited, 6 West 57th Street. 1960. 205 pp. \$3.50. "Messing about in boats" is a habit as old as mankind's memories. This book will appeal to every

boy and girl who has inherited it. From the ancient times of the Egyptians, through great centuries of exploration and endeavor to the final flowering of the clipper ship, the author tells the enthralling tale of how men have harvested the wind to conquer the waves.

GILBERT, G. M. *Nuremberg Diary*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1961. 440 pp. 75¢. Reveals the thoughts of the Nazi defendants at the Nuremberg trials, exposes the psychological motivations that were responsible for Dachau and Buchenwald.

GLENN, H. T. *Glenn's New Auto Repair Manual*. Philadelphia 39: Chilton Company—Book Division, 56 and Chestnut Streets. 1960. 1,100 pp. (8½" x 10") \$7.95. This book covers every essential repair process carried on in the service field. It is logically arranged by topics, starting with a comprehensive chapter on troubleshooting. Succeeding chapters, telling how to repair the defect, proceed logically (according to the flow of power) from the engine through the clutch, transmission, and rear-drive mechanism, where the power is delivered to the rear wheels. Fuel and electrical systems, the front end, and the brakes are also discussed. An appreciable part of the book is devoted to servicing modern power assisting devices: power steering, brakes, tops, seats, and windows. Temperature control devices—heating and air conditioning—are also covered in detailed manner. Each piece of equipment is discussed under four headings: theory of operation, disassembling, cleaning and inspecting, and assembling.

Each section begins with a thorough coverage of the theory of operation of the component being overhauled. Expressly written for the student-mechanic, the theory is not academic but is definitely related to the service procedures and covers only that which is necessary to assist the mechanic in understanding the "why" of each job. The disassembling instructions consist of a series of action-type pictures illustrating each step required to take the unit apart. The pictures are keyed to the written instructions by number.

The cleaning and inspecting section which follows disassembly covers the information needed to clean parts properly and carry out an intelligent inspection to determine with assurance which parts can be reused. After cleaning and inspecting, the units are assembled through step-by-step illustrated instructions. Assembly hints are given when parts can be installed in two possible ways. Clearances and tolerances are provided right along with the instructional steps wherever possible. No time need be wasted in consulting tables in other sections of the book for such information as torque-wrench data and clearances. Bench adjustments and on-the-car repair procedures are clearly set off by captions set in heavy type to assist the mechanic in finding these instructions quickly in the event the unit is not being completely overhauled.

This book is written in a simplified form so that the student and the do-it-yourselfer can follow the instructions with relative ease. The advanced student and the seasoned mechanic will find a wealth of information in this book. The specialist, and those aspiring to these highly technical fields will find in this book comprehensive instructions for servicing the power-assist devices so commonly used in today's cars.

GOGOL, NIKOLAI. *The Diary of a Madman and Other Stories*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1961. 240 pp. 50¢. This book, translated from the Russian, contains five stories: "The Diary of a Madman," "The Nose," "The Carriage," "The Over-

coat," and "Taras Bulba." The author is regarded as the father of Russian realism. His stories are rooted in commonplace events; his characters are the underdogs and the insignificant.

GOTTLIEB, BERNHARDT. *What a Girl Should Know About Sex*. New York 22: Bobbs-Merrill Company, Inc., 1720 East 38th Street. 1961. 190 pp. \$3.25. In this short book the author explains for young girls the physiological and psychological changes that occur during adolescence and how to deal with them; the need for and the dangers of necking; the pitfalls of growing up; the power of love; taking the girl from the first feelings of growth through to marriage and motherhood.

GRAND, LE. *Augustus Hits the Road*. New York 10: Grosset & Dunlap, 1107 Broadway. 1946. 128 pp. \$1.50. Augustus had heard about Mr. Vanderhoogan. Mr. Vanderhoogan was a road guy who traveled in a trailer. He could stop any time and anywhere he wanted. Where did he get money to live on? He made pigs and heads and sleeping Indians—of plaster, that is.

GRAY, PATSEY. *Heads Up!* New York 36: Scholastic Book Services, 33 West 42nd Street. 1961. 160 pp. 35¢. A story of daredevil riding and spectacular feats.

GUILLOT, RENE. *Sama*. New York 19: Criterion Books, Inc., 6 West 57th Street. 1961. 174 pp. \$3.50. The author takes his readers into the world of the great African jungle and introduces them to Sama, the newborn prince of the elephants. Nuzzling against the warm, protective flanks of his mother, Marana, or splashing happily in a jungle pool, Sama is so young that each new sight, sound, and experience seems more joyful than the last. He has yet to know fear, pain, or sorrow—but this knowledge is not long in coming.

HAGGERTY, J. J., JR. *Project Mercury*. New York 36: Scholastic Book Services, 33 West 42nd Street. 1961. 64 pp. 25¢. Here is the exciting story of Project Mercury—the men and the space hardware that make up our most daring venture into the unknown.

HANDLER, BEULAH. *English the American Way for German-Speaking Adults*. New York 3: Barnes & Noble, Inc., 105 Fifth Avenue. 1961. 304 pp. \$1.50. This book treats on the use of English correctly and effectively in everyday life. It includes more than 3,000 American idioms with German translations and full citizenship information. For German-speaking adults.

HARRISON, S. S. *India and the United States*. New York 11: The Macmillan Company, 60 Fifth Avenue. 1961. 252 pp. \$5.95. India and the United States was the topic of a conference held in Washington in May 1959, in which 88 experts participated—including Richard Nixon, John Kennedy, B. K. Nehru, Barbara Ward, and Asoka Mehta, leader of India's Praja Socialist Party. They discussed the vital stake the United States has in India's future and offered proposals for meeting the political and economic challenges of Communism in underdeveloped areas. Mr. Harrison has recorded the highlights of the speeches and panel discussions and has added his own authoritative annotations in summing up the meeting.

HART, W. W.; VERYL SCHULT; and LEE IRVIN. *Mathematics in Daily Use*, third edition revised. Boston 16: D. C. Heath & Company, 285 Columbus Avenue. 1961. 382 pp. \$4.20. This book contains subject matter, instruction, and practice in mathematics that the majority of people use in their daily affairs. It is general mathematics that includes units from arithmetic, intuitive geometry, and preparatory algebra. However, since the book is de-

signed for pupils who are not studying algebra and who may make this a terminal course in mathematics, maximum attention is given to arithmetical processes and to problems solved by them. Mastery of the arithmetical units, supplemented by the previews of geometry and algebra, will also prepare pupils to pursue subsequent courses in mathematics and may stimulate in them a desire to do so.

HAYES, ANNA H. *The Adventures of Hedvig and Lollie*. Caldwell, Idaho: The Caxton Printers, Ltd. 1961. 134 pp. \$3.50. The story is told of two little Danish girls who accompanied their Uncle John and Tanta Anna on a journey to a pioneer home in Cottonwood Canyon in southern Idaho. There is an account of the runaway ox team, of the cat Bonnie that became lost for a time, of the finding of the Wells Fargo strong box in the sage brush, and of the starting of an early-day cheese factory. The family becomes involved in the great Indian uprising of 1878, but they are warned and escape with their lives.

HEATH, M. A., *Iowa Hannah*. New York 22: Hastings House, Publishers, Inc., 151 East 40th Street. 1961. 117 pp. \$2.75. The book tells the story of the Anthony Baker family pioneering to Iowa in a covered wagon in the year 1853. When he first met Hannah she was driving the horses that were pulling the wagon while her father rode alongside, guiding forty head of cattle. Like other pioneers, the Baker family had their troubles as they slowly made their way over the rough roads to their destination, the farmland of Iowa that had been assigned to a friend of theirs. They were to hold it for him until his arrival and then receive half of the acreage as payment for so doing. The experiences of Hannah and her three sisters and baby brother make up the story.

HIRSHBERG, AL. *The Man Who Fought Back: Red Schoendienst*. New York 18: Julian Messner, Inc., 8 West 40th Street. 1961. 192 pp. \$2.95. Baseball has many heroes, but few who can match the determination and courage of Albert "Red" Schoendienst. Despite the near loss of an eye, despite a severe bout with tuberculosis late in his career, he has written his name indelibly in baseball history as one of the great all-time second basemen.

HONOUR, ALAN. *Secrets of Minos*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 330 West 42nd Street. 1961. 189 pp. \$3.25. The island of Crete lies southeast of the Greek mainland in the Mediterranean. Now an archaeologist's paradise, it was little known in the late nineteenth century when Arthur Evans, an Englishman, began to excavate. It is to these excavations that we owe the discovery of the ancient Minoan civilization, long believed legendary.

HOROWITZ, AL. *The Golden Treasury of Chess*. New York 3: Barnes and Noble, Inc., 105 Fifth Avenue. 1961. 334 pp. \$1.95. This book contains the record of 575 games of chess with diagram and illustrations. Some are devoted to a single tournament or match, others to a single epoch, while others suffer from planlessness and haphazard arrangement.

HOYT, E. P. *Lost Statesmen*. Chicago 4: The Reilly & Lee Company, 14 East Jackson Boulevard. 1961. 224 pp. \$3.50. This is the story of ten Americans who tried for the highest elective office in the land—and lost. All wanted desperately to become President of the United States. Each of them, in his own way, would have made a good President—several of them may have become great. The lives of these men tell the story of American political life, full of comedy, tragedy, and inspiration.

IRVING, ROBERT. *Electronics*. New York 22: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1961. 183 pp. \$3.25. This book describes the development, use, and performance of such familiar pieces of electronic equipment as the machinery used in television, radio broadcasting, and automatic welding; photo tubes, geiger counters, electron microscopes, radar, digital computers, radio telescopes, various servo-mechanisms, and many other electronic devices.

ISE, JOHN. *Our National Park Policy*. Baltimore 18: The Johns Hopkins Press. 1961. 713 pp. \$10. Yellowstone and Yosemite were established long before any other country had conceived the idea of setting aside national parks. Since 1890, no less than twenty-five other national parks have been created. Such a revolutionary program did not come about without a struggle. Pressure groups, both in and outside of the government, rallied in their own interests to prevent expropriation of Federal land that contained valuable timber, minerals, power sites, and game. The history of the parks is in part the history of dedicated, farsighted people who fought for what they believed in and succeeded. This book is a skillful narrative of the political and administrative struggles that through the years have created the system we enjoy today. In addition, it is a thoughtful analysis of the problems that still beset the parks—chief among them the problem of finance.

JACKSON, C. P., *Bullpen Bargain*. New York 22: Hastings House Publishers, Inc., 151 East 40th Street. 1961. 157 pp. \$2.95. The hero of this professional baseball story is one Bob Thomas, a young pitcher who finally gets his chance with a big ball club and reports to their Florida camp. There, before he even has time to get into a uniform, he finds he is traded to another club! It means another trip and a start with so many odds against him—even the first-string catcher—that the situation seems hopeless.

JONES, E. G. *Living in Safety and Health*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Company, East Washington Square. 1961. 445 pp. Familiarity with the plan of this text will facilitate its use. Every chapter, following a general introduction that relates the subject to current concerns of students and to developments in the world of science, presents a few questions to stimulate interest and motivate study. These questions often serve to bring from class members expressions of misapprehensions that can be corrected as the study proceeds.

The language is simple and direct. Technical terms of biology, medicine, and other related sciences that educated people of today commonly hear and read are used. The first time a word of this type appears, it is defined. A glossary of technical words is included for reference, if necessary, when the word is repeated later in the text. Review is provided by a list of words to know and use in the study projects at the end of each chapter.

JONES, EVAN, and MORGAN, D. L. *Trappers and Mountain Men*. New York 20: Golden Press, Inc., 630 Fifth Avenue. 1961. 153 pp. \$3.50. Here are the exploits of the men who followed the routes of Champlain, La Salle, Radisson, Lewis and Clark, and other pathfinders: the ruggedly independent men who explored and trapped in the wilderness of the New World.

There is no record of the first European to come to the New World, but, whoever he was, he most certainly saw some of the fur-bearing animals of this new continent. Vikings in the eleventh century brought back gray furs, sables, and other peltries. Then in the fifteenth century—in one of the strange turns of fashion—the beaver hat became a status symbol for the elegant European male. Not a passing fad, it remained in vogue for about 400 years. Although

furs had always been a symbol of rank and wealth, the beaver became the prime object of search.

KAHN, GILBERT; THEODORE YERIAN; and J. R. STEWART, JR. *Progressive Filing*, seventh edition. 1961. 192 pp. \$3.16. The book is organized so that the complete filing cycle is presented as early as possible in the course. Thus, if the school offers a very brief course in filing, every student still has an opportunity to work with all the basic aspects, such as indexing rules, correspondence filing procedures, charge and transfer methods, and the selection of equipment and supplies.

KEENE, CAROLYN. *The Mystery of the Fire Dragon*. New York 10: Grosset & Dunlap, 1107 Broadway. 1961. 182 pp. \$1. Never before, in all the exciting adventures of Nancy Drew's famous career, has she encountered a case as perplexing as the mystery of the fire dragon.

KEISER, F. *Introductory Economics*. New York 16: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 440 Park Avenue, S. 1961. 559 pp. \$6.50. This text was written for use in a one-semester, introductory economics course. The approach used in this book is primarily institutional. Only a limited amount of price theory has been included. Part I presents an introduction to these basic economic problems, the different techniques by which they were solved in the historical economic systems, and the methods of organizing and carrying out production in our society. Part II is devoted to the problem of production and the price system; Part III deals with the problems of the exchange of goods and services and includes discussions of money and its creation, the Federal Reserve System, monetary policy, and price changes; Part IV is concerned with the measurement of production; Part V deals with the problem of income distribution; and Part VI deals with the all-important problem of international trade.

KNIGHT, D. C. *Isaac Newton, Mastermind of Modern Science*. New York 22: Franklin Watts, Inc., 575 Lexington Avenue. 1961. 162 pp. \$2.95. If ever a man merited the name of mastermind, it was the great English physicist, Isaac Newton. The discovery of the Laws of Motion, universal gravitation, the reflecting telescope, and calculus—these and more of Newton's contributions are the very cornerstones of modern science. It was also Newton's experimental approach, combined with his astonishing insights, that paved the way for modern scientific inquiry.

KONICK, MARCUS. *Plays for Modern Youth*. New York 10: Globe Book Company, 175 Fifth Avenue. 1961. 429 pp. List price, \$3; class price, \$2.25. This group of 13 plays have all been tried in the classroom and produced on the stage. The selections are funny, serious, and fantastic. Some are easy and some are more difficult, but students at almost any adolescent level can enjoy them. Each play is introduced by information about the author and the play and by motivating questions. Each has a section on appreciation and one in "Dramatically Speaking," or on "Speak up."

KUMIN, M. W. *Halfway*. New York 17: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 383 Madison Avenue. 1961. 106 pp. \$3.95. This book is composed of forty short poems—both lyric and dramatic—conveying a deeply felt admiration for the strength and courage within the human being. A junior life-saving class, a movie with Bogart and Bergman, a subway ride home, the first spring rain—these simple experiences are transformed through Maxine Kumin's insight into deeply moving poems.

KUPRIN, ALEXANDER. *The Duel and Selected Stories*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1961. 256 pp. 50¢. This is an autobiographical novel written after Kuprin's own experience as a second lieutenant in a small Russian garrison town; it is the tale of men caught in an impersonal, merciless social machine and the day-to-day living of a pointless existence. "The Horse Thieves," "Anathema," and "The Circus Wrestlers," the three stories included in the volume, tell the story of different kinds of people also caught in a similar abyss.

LAIRD, D. A. and ELEANOR. *Practical Business Psychology*, third edition. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 330 West 42nd Street. 1961. 448 pp. Most of the changes in the present revision have been in details that will make it an easier book to teach, and also more adapted to self-instruction or home study. Most of the material about the technical methods used by psychologists has been dropped. The book is now aimed directly toward orienting the reader to the human problems he will encounter and the personal adjustments he will likely need to make to get ahead and be happy in modern business life. In a sense, this is a "success book," but with a difference—how to organize your life for a career in business by applying some research findings about human nature in business life.

More attention has been given to projects, "Things to Do," and these should supply the teacher with additional demonstration material. Some of the projects can be adapted for role-playing demonstrations. The "Problems to Discuss" have been increased in number and made more pointed. For most of the problems, as with those in business life, there is no "one best answer." There are, instead, "several good answers," depending on many factors in the situation. This true-to-life quality adds to the usefulness of the problems for stimulating group discussion. The problems have been considered extremely useful for giving readers some "skill practice" in making use of psychology in situations they are likely to face later in business life.

LANKFORD, F. G., JR.; J. F. ULRICH; and J. R. CLARK. *Essential Mathematics*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 750 Third Avenue. 1961. 544 pp. \$4.12. The table of contents of this book reveals a kind of methodical organization that is new in its simplicity and directness. The authors believe that a clear-cut, logical presentation of the subject matter produces the best results, and thereby avoid the confusion engendered by some textbooks that tend to skip around among the topics usually covered in this course.

Part I, "A New Look at Arithmetic," offers a complete redevelopment of fundamentals, beginning with numbers and numerals and continuing through operations with whole numbers, fractions, decimals, and per cents. Students are often shown more than one approach to an operation and are invited to develop others on their own. There is noticeable emphasis on the skills of estimating and mental computation.

Having laid the necessary ground work in Part I, the second part, "Everyday Uses of Mathematics," covers the topics of "social arithmetic." The illustrative problems and examples are many and varied, and consumer topics are treated in up-to-date, realistic terms. Students for whom this course is in fact their last formal study of mathematics should often find reason to remember and profit by the instruction of this section.

Part III, "Using Algebra and Geometry," moves from a general study of measurement to problems of angles, graphs, and geometric constructions.

Algebra, for which the student has been carefully prepared in Part I, is approached through the familiar concepts of arithmetic; the student then advances naturally to a brief treatment of numerical trigonometry through problems in indirect measurement. There are frequent reminders of the significance of these more advanced topics for all consumer citizens in this nuclear age.

LEAHY, M. U.; A. O. AMES; and J. F. BAKER. *Science for Progress*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1961. 620 pp. \$5.24. This book was planned to help in the achievement of the objectives of science education listed by leaders in the field. The science problems, experiences, and background information selected will help boys and girls to participate effectively in the world in which they live. Problems in each case have been chosen from topics with a strong appeal for young people. The presentation aims to challenge, to motivate, and to intrigue the reader. Personalized and timely references are used throughout.

Important features are the review material, the related activities and projects, and the questions at the end of each separate problem or unit. Such material, readily available, should be valuable to teachers and students. There is a vast array of interesting pictures and diagrams, many in full color. All are specifically related to ideas treated in the text.

The social effects and implications of science are given a major place in the structure of this book. The language in the text has been carefully selected and edited for clarity and directness. Sentences are reasonably simple and short. Every word or term likely to be new or technical for the student is italicized and is clearly explained in the context nearby. No preliminary work in general science is needed for an understanding of this book. A glossary at the end defines briefly those words and terms that may be strange to the reader, and gives phonetic spelling of those that might be difficult to pronounce. It is a ready reference section that should be very handy. This book and the following two by the same authors can well form a 3-years course for use in grades 7, 8, and 9.

———. *Science in Today's World*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1961. 428 pp. \$3.96. In this scientific age it is essential to give all students a comprehensive survey of and orientation to the general areas of modern science. Several valuable features will be found at the end of each unit in this book. The "Ideas to Remember" sections review the important ideas or concepts. The "Can You Do These?" sections list a comprehensive set of directed student activities, including simple experiments, projects, library research, and reports. The "How Would You Answer These?" sections supply comprehensive short-answer tests and some additional essay-type questions. Bibliography sections entitled "Further Reading" suggest related, interesting reading in recent books.

The language has been kept simple and clear. New or technical words or terms are italicized and then explained in the context nearby. A glossary at the end of the book defines briefly those words and terms that may be strange to the reader; words that may be difficult to pronounce are spelled phonetically. Throughout, care has been taken to select the most valuable material and to make it both interesting and readily understandable.

———. *Science for Your Needs*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1961. 445 pp. \$4.12. The current scientific age has had and is having a tremendous effect on our way of life. The need for scientifically

literate citizens is self-evident. It is similarly obvious that our national economy, strength, and security demand a sufficient number of trained technicians and scientists. By explaining many important facts, principles, and applications of science, this introductory text provides a clearer understanding of the world we live in.

Science is more than a compilation of facts. It is a method of thinking and working; it is a way of solving problems. The text, suggested activities, and illustrations are stimulating and motivating. The material is personalized and timely throughout. The book's nine units will acquaint readers with a sampling of experiences, information, and problems from many science areas. The twenty-four problems, chosen from among subjects in which young people have keen interest, should present a real challenge. Generalized applications of science are developed to help the reader cope more effectively with the scientific world of today. Related activities, questions, and review material are provided at the end of each separate problem or unit. The book features many interesting and colorful pictures and diagrams. Each one has specific reference to some important idea in text.

LEIGH, ROBERTA. *Tomahawk*. New York 19: Eriksson-Taplinger Company, Inc., 119 West 57th Street. 1960. 88 pp. \$2.50. This is the story of Tomahawk's exciting journey with his friends Bobo, the beaver, and the Goony Bird to the wigwam of Giant Winter, the ordeals by which he proved his courage and cunning, his contest with the wicked Indian, Crooked Tooth, and his friendship with a little Canadian boy.

———. *Tomahawk and the River of Gold*. New York 19: Eriksson-Taplinger Company, Inc., 119 West 57th Street. 1960. 96 pp. \$2.50. Tomahawk, with Bobo the baby beaver and the Goony Bird, sets out to rescue his father. Soon the trail leads them to more dangerous encounters with ruthless Crooked Tooth and his friend Scarface.

LEONHARDY, ADELE. *College Algebra*. New York 16: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 440 Park Avenue, South. 1961. 456 pp. \$5.95. As the book shows, an understanding of the logical nature of algebra strengthens the student's ability to perform algebraic techniques—while technical ability leads to a better understanding of the logical pattern of algebra. Elementary set theory is introduced and developed throughout the book as a means for clarifying concepts and logical relationships. First applied to the theory of numbers, the concept of sets is later extended to such areas as the solution of equations and of inequalities, functions and relations, and probability theory. The logical development of the material is highlighted by cumulative summaries at the end of each chapter.

One of the most important features of the book for the student is its readability. The sections are relatively short; and definitions, postulates, and theorems are clearly marked. Explanations are carefully written and include many illustrative examples. The instructor will find that the book is flexible enough to allow for his own particular course needs and requirements. A large number of problems, ranging from questions about theory to exercises in the use of algebraic techniques, is included.

LEVINE, I. E. *Behind the Silken Curtain*. New York 18: Julian Messner, Inc., 8 West 40th Street. 1961. 192 pp. \$2.95. Townsend Harris opened the hostile countries of Japan and Siam to international trade and was the first foreigner to lift the "silken curtain" of isolation from the mysterious East.

Diplomat, adventurer, explorer, he also pioneered in American education and founded The College of the City of New York.

LINDGREN, ASTRID. *Kati in Paris*. New York 10: Grosset & Dunlap, Inc., 1107 Broadway. 1961. 152 pp. \$2.50. A Paris wedding! What could be more romantic, more thrilling? And Kati, wildly exuberant and lovely, is to have just that—a Paris wedding. Kati, always unpredictable, Lennart, her fiance, and Eva, her best friend, take the gay city by surprise. Surely never before has Paris known such high-spirited, utterly captivating young people as these three from Sweden—a bride and groom, and their very unusual “flower girl.”

LORANT, STEFAN. *The Life of Abraham Lincoln*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1961. 256 pp. 75¢. An illustrated biography with over 180 pictures.

LOUGHLIN, R. L., and L. M. POPP. *Four Complete World Novels*. New York 10: Globe Book Company, 175 Fifth Avenue. 1961. 471 pp. List price, \$3.76; class price, \$2.82. Here are four complete novels translated into English: “Master and Man” by Leo Tolstoy, “Tonio Kroger” by Thomas Mann, “Don Segundo Sombra,” by Ricardo Guaresch, and “The Little World of Don Camillo,” by Giovanni Guareschi. Additional aids to understanding and appreciating these works are the footnotes, biographical and critical comments in the preface of each novel, and the study and exercise material following each selection and at the end of the volume.

———, and L. M. POPP. *Journeys in Science Fiction*. New York 10: Globe Book Company, 175 Fifth Avenue. 1961. 666 pp. List price, \$3.52; class price, \$2.64. This book contains excellent examples of many types of imaginative writing from the past and present. In every story or play, human beings apply, misapply, defy, or suffer from some scientific or seemingly scientific principle.

LOVELL, A. C. B. *The Individual and the Universe*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1961. 144 pp. 50¢. One of England's leading astronomers presents a nontechnical survey of advances in astronomy—from Galileo to the radio telescope.

LOWE, GEORGE. *From Everest to the South Pole*. New York 10: St. Martin's Press, 175 Fifth Avenue. 1961. 224 pp. \$4.50. When George Lowe broke his arm as a boy and it failed to mend and allow the muscles to develop, his doctors came to the conclusion that he would always be “a bit of a cripple” and “physically not much use.” Only one person disagreed with this verdict—George Lowe. He became an accomplished mountaineer. By 1951 the “bit of a cripple” led the assault of the British Everest Expedition on the notorious Lhotse Face, paving a way to the summit of the world for Hillary and Tenzing. An important aspect of this book is the analysis of men's reactions under the strain of prolonged isolation and bitter physical hardship.

MAXWELL, GAVIN. *Ring of Bright Water*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton & Company, 300 Park Avenue, South. 1960. 221 pp. \$5.00. In this book the author gives a superb account of his life in a lonely cottage on the northwest coast of Scotland, about the animals who shared it with him, and about the others who are his only immediate neighbors in a brilliant landscape of rock and sea.

MAY, C. P. *Michael Faraday and the Electric Dynamo*. New York 22: Franklin Watts, Inc., 575 Lexington Avenue. 1961. 152 pp. \$1.95. Michael

Faraday was a blacksmith's son who became one of the world's most honored scientists. Apprenticed to a London bookbinder, Faraday received his start in science by presenting a well-bound book of Humphry Davy's lecture notes to Davy himself. Faraday also asked the famous scientist for an assistant's job—and got it.

MCCABE, F. T.; C. W. KEITH; and W. E. FARNHAM. *Mechanical Drafting Essentials*, third edition. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1961. 269 pp. \$4. This combination text and workbook presents in logical sequence the alphabet, vocabulary, grammar, idioms, and constructions of the graphic language in such a way as to enable the student to obtain a reading knowledge of this language and to develop the technique of its penmanship in the most direct manner.

The primary emphasis is upon reading, interpreting, and sketching for two reasons. In the first place, we all know that there are many men whose occupations require that they be able to read and to interpret drawings or blue prints. These men may occasionally be called upon to make freehand drawings in orthographic or pictorial drawing, but they are seldom if ever called upon to make drawings which require the use of drafting equipment. Secondly, even for those who will become draftsmen, the experience of the writers indicates that the manipulative skill required for their work is more readily acquired after they have had training in reading and interpreting drawings and in sketching. Instrumental drawing, therefore, is introduced only after instruction and practice have been given in these three fundamental processes. The chapters have been arranged so that the students may remove the worksheets from the book and still retain the text and explanatory materials intact in the binding for easy reference or review.

MCLEAN, DONALD. *The Roaring Days*. New York 10: St. Martin's Press, 175 Fifth Avenue. 1961. 277 pp. \$3.95. Here is a series of yarns, reminiscent of the lawless days of the American Frontier and the Gold Rush, written in a style which combines the humor, the wild self-conscious exaggeration, and the easy charm of Mark Twain. The scene is the Australian Outback at the turn of the Century—the characters are the colorful, usually pugnacious, silver prospectors and pioneering sheep-farmers with their simple honor, rough justice, and immense sense of fun.

MC SWIGAN, MARIE. *Three's a Crowd*. New York 36: Scholastic Book Services, 33 West 42nd Street. 1961. 192 pp. 25¢. Another interesting story for the teenager.

MELADY, T. P. *Profiles of African Leaders*. New York 11: The Macmillan Company, 60 Fifth Avenue. 1961. 186 pp. \$4.95. The author writes of the men who control Africa's destiny—such figures as Haile Selassie, Tom Mboya, Kwame Nkrumah, and Sekou Toure—men by whom we can evaluate the present conditions and their implications for the future of their continent. He also relates the individual leader and his country to the broader context of Africa as a whole—its potential power and influence, and its complex psychology.

MELVILLE, HERMAN. *Moby Dick*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1961. 536 pp. 75¢. The epic saga of a one-legged fanatic who swears vengeance on the white whale that had crippled him.

MOORE, LILIAN. *The Snake That Went to School*. New York 36: Scholastic Book Services, 33 West 42nd Street. 1961. 64 pp. 25¢. This story is of a boy and his snake.

MOORE, SHIRLEY, editor. *Science Project Handbook*. Washington 6, D. C. Science Service, Inc., 1719 N Street, N.W. Here are more than 1,000 ideas for work projects and experiments. Also lists over 300 science books and magazines.

MOZLEY, CHARLES. *The Complete Fairy Tales of Oscar Wilde*. New York 22: Franklin Watts, Inc., 575 Lexington Avenue. 1960. 189 pp. \$4.95. This beautifully printed and illustrated edition contains all of the famous fairy tales written by Oscar Wilde. They are: The Happy Prince, The Nightingale and the Rose, The Selfish Giant, The Devoted Friend, The Remarkable Rocket, The Young King, The Fisherman and His Soul, The Birthday of the Infanta, and The Star Child.

MYRUS, DON. *The Astronauts*. New York: Grosset and Dunlap, 1107 Broadway. 1961. 92 pp. Here is the story of man's greatest adventure in outer space. Here is a short biography of each of the seven astronauts. Included also are how they were chosen and the story of the intense training and conditioning through which they go.

NEPHEW, WILLIAM, and MICHAEL CHESTER. *Moon Base*. New York 36: Scholastic Book Services, 33 West 42nd Street. 1961. 64 pp. 25¢. The authors answer many questions about the physical features of the moon and tell the story of the first moon base.

A New Look at the Arts: A New Look at Faith and Loyalties; and A New Look at Adventure. London SW1: Educational Productions Limited, 17 Denbigh Street. 1960. Each 64 pp. Each 4 shillings. These three publications are a new series prepared for the Girl Guides Association, which this year celebrated its Jubilee. The books are designed to help girls in the 15 to 21 age group to find many new interests and to solve the problems that have to be faced by those who want to become responsible citizens and also enjoy life to the full. They provide an introduction to a vast range of subjects from rock climbing to television, from interior decorating to amateur dramatics, from religious faith to the duties of a citizen.

Such matters as love, marriage, children, citizenship, and religious belief produce much questioning in the minds of girls in their teens. These books are designed to help them to face their problems both now and in the future. In addition the many new ideas and interests, the fascinating glimpses of activities, indoors and out, common and uncommon, will stimulate any girl to broaden her outlook and will give her a helping hand in getting started on completely new activities. Here are answers to any girl who does not know what to do or just "can't be bothered." At the end of each book, suggestions are given about the ways in which the various topics and activities can be taken further both by the individual and by groups of girls or girls and boys. There is also a list of recommended books.

NIELSEN, VIRGINIA. *The Road to the Valley*. New York 18. David McKay Company, Inc., 119 West 40th Street. 1961. 152 pp. \$2.95. When the United States declared war on Mexico, the leader of the Mormon people, Brigham Young, was asked to furnish a battalion of soldiers to fight for California. Five hundred Mormons volunteered. Among them was Thaddeus Barlow who marched off, leaving his wife, small son Joey, and young daughter Ellen.

NORBU, T. J., and HEINRICH HARRER. *Tibet Is my Country*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton & Company, 300 Park Avenue, South. 1961. 264 pp. \$5. Never before has a Tibetan from the family circle of the Dalai Lama told

the world the secrets of his life. With Heinrich Harrer, close friend of both Norbu and the Dalai Lama, Thubten Norbu has written a unique and moving autobiography that is both a human testament of the first order and a rare and lucid view into Tibetan customs, loyalties, and ways of life.

The North Atlantic Treaty Organization. Paris, France: The Organization, 1960. 97 pp. The book discusses why the treaty was signed, what it says, the Alliance from 1949 to 1960, its present structure, NATO's activities and achievements, and prospects for the future.

NOURSE, A. E. *Tiger by the Tail.* New York 18: David McKay Company, Inc., 119 West 40th Street. 1961. 184 pp. \$3.50. A fearful journey across the scorching bright side of the planet Mercury . . . a strange invasion from another dimension . . . a disastrous mining operation in the Venusian mud . . . a frightening training course for a future starship pilot . . . these are only a few of the remarkable science fiction adventures encountered in this book.

O'CONNOR, W. H. *How To Star in Track and Field.* New York 36: Scholastic Book Services, 33 West 42nd Street. 1961. 64 pp. 25¢. Here are tips for the aspiring champion in sports.

OGILVIE, ELISABETH. *The Fabulous Year.* New York 36: Scholastic Book Services, 33 West 42nd Street. 1961. 224 pp. 35¢. The story of a wonderful year in school.

OLSON, M. C.; E. A. ZELLIOT; and W. E. LEIDNER. *Introductory Bookkeeping*, third edition. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1961. 602 pp. \$3.84. Following a brief discussion of the place and purpose of the beginning bookkeeping course, simple forms of the profit and loss statement and the balance sheet are presented to give the student a general understanding of the kinds of information that may be desired from bookkeeping records. Then follows a presentation of how accounts are used to provide the information needed for the business reports. Thus the student's interest is aroused through learning something of the end-results of bookkeeping and the principles of debit and credit before he undertakes the detailed work of journalizing. All the beginning presentations are made with the use of illustrations and exercise materials taken from business experiences with which students are familiar.

Each chapter is relatively short and is devoted to but one aspect of bookkeeping. Each new presentation is based upon a foundation of previous learning. Thus the student proceeds logically from one fundamental to the next in "stair-step" fashion, without confusion.

A large selection of graded practice exercises is provided for each chapter in the body of the text. In addition, a generous list of supplementary exercises for each chapter is furnished in the appendix. The large number of exercises from which selections may be made makes it possible to plan assignments to fit the varying needs of individual students and of different classes.

In addition to the practice exercises, two complete practice sets are provided in the text; these sets illustrate the single proprietor, the partnership and the corporation forms of ownership. To make the work more realistic, the data for the entries in Sets I and II are to be taken from illustrations of the business papers used in the transactions instead of from the usual printed narrative. For Set III, facsimile business papers and a complete set of bound record books are available if desired.

For economy and the convenience of students, a *Workbook* that contains the appropriate blanks and forms needed for the regular exercises in the text is available. The *Workbook* also includes a series of Progress Guides to aid the student in checking his progress.

PACE, M. M. *Old Bones, the Wonder Horse*. New York 36: Scholastic Book Services, 33 West 42nd Street. 1961. 96 pp. 35¢. This is a story of a horse.

PALGRAVE, F. T. *The Golden Treasury*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1961. 584 pp. 75¢. This book of songs and lyrical poems of this famous collection has been enlarged and brought up to date by Oscar Williams—a total of 690 English and American poems.

PALLAS, NORWIN. *The Big Cat Mystery*. New York 18: Ives Washburn, Inc., 119 West 40th Street. 1961. 147 pp. \$2.95. When a report reaches the Town Crier office that a leopard is loose in the woods around Vanishing Lake, skepticism is the natural reaction. Is the animal really a leopard? If so, how did it get there? If not, what kind of wild animal is it? Or is the whole thing a hoax with a mysterious purpose behind it?

PERNOUD, GEORGES, and SABINE FLAISSIER. *The French Revolution*. New York 16: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 210 Madison Avenue. 1960. 330 pp. \$5.00. The book begins with the entry in the diary of Gouverneur Morris, a tourist from the United States, which tells of watching the magnificent procession at Versailles on May 4, 1789, for the opening of the States General. It closes with a Corsican, a Parisian by adoption named Bonaparte, writing to his brother in the summer of 1795.

Between those two dates, we share in the defense of the Bastille, watch the massacre of the Swiss Guards at Versailles and the enforced return of the King and Queen to Paris. With the diary of Louis XVI, we join in the attempt of the Royal family to escape from France and their capture at Varennes, and read the account of the man whose recognition of the King sent Louis back to Paris and his death. There is a chapter on the emigre royalists, as they saw themselves. We watch the battle of Valmy with Goethe and the Comte de Dumas. From the diary of the fifteen-year-old daughter of Louis and Marie Antoinette and, also, from the diary of the valet of the King and the account of the maid of Marie Antoinette, we learn of the sufferings of the Royal family in prison.

PODOLIN, SI. *The Man-Eater of Shark Island*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 750 Third Avenue. 1961. 158 pp. \$3. Skipper Dumont had been the underground contact for Bill's father during World War II, when his contingent of frogmen had landed on Shark Island to prepare an invasion beachhead. But what should have been a pleasant summer for Bill, full of sailing and swimming, turned instead into a struggle for survival, a life-and-death fight against a huge, wily old shark that was ruining the local sardine fishing and depriving the Dumont family of its meager living.

POLLOCK, J. C. *Earth's Remotest End*. New York 11: The Macmillan Company, 60 Fifth Avenue. 1961. 332 pp. \$5.95. Against the real and colorful panorama of Asia today, the author describes the moral battle of Christianity and Communism. In remote jungles, in great cities, in rugged mountain regions, he visited and talked with missionaries, their friends and their enemies, to find out what effect Christian teaching is having in Asian affairs. He came away

with the conviction that Christianity might well be the deciding factor in the struggle of East and West for the minds and souls of the Asian peoples.

PORTER, C. O., and R. J. ALEXANDER. *The Struggle for Democracy in Latin America*. New York 11: The Macmillan Company, 60 Fifth Avenue. 1960. 215 pp. \$4.50. What about United States foreign policy in Latin America? What has it been? What should it be in terms of the past and current needs of these peoples? The authors feel that U.S. foreign policy has been "questionable and clumsy." They reinforce their opinions with documentation that is objective and to the point. They offer a program which they believe would better serve the mutual interests of the United States and Latin America. In brief, this book sketches the causes for and nature of the struggle for democratic government in twenty Latin American "republics" and the most recent incidents in this struggle.

PORTLAND, MICHAEL. *Children of the Cape*. New York 19: Taplinger Publishing Company, Inc., 119 West 57th Street. 1961. 32 pp. \$2.50. This is the story of how the children who live in South Africa work, play, travel, and go to school. More than 50 full-color pictures illustrates the text.

———. *Children of the Fishing Boats*. New York 19: Taplinger Publishing Company, Inc., 119 West 57th Street. 1961. 32 pp. \$2.50. This is the story of the children of Sperlonga, the beautiful fishing village of sunny Italy. One sees how they play and work; one also sees the countryside, the farms, and the streets of the town. More than 50 full-color photographs add to the story.

PRESCOTT, W. H. *The Conquest of Peru*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1961. 432 pp. 50¢. An abridgement of the classic story of the Inca Empire and its subjugation by the Spaniards.

REMINGTON, FREDERIC. *Frederic Remington's Own West*. New York 16: The Dial Press, Inc., 461 Park Avenue South. 1960. 254 pp. \$7.50. This book contains the best of Remington's writing together with over 100 of the author's original illustrations, many of which appeared in the most notable magazines of his day, including *Century*, *Harper's Monthly*, and *Colliers*. Although Frederic Remington did not live to write his autobiography, his lively and virile stories are here arranged to follow the sequence of his adventurous life, so that the book is the closest approach to an autobiography of the great Western artist-writer that can ever be published. Two of the twenty-six pieces have never been published before and most of the others have been practically unavailable for half a century.

ROBB, E. C. *There's Something About a River*. New York 16: Duell, Sloan & Pearce, Inc., 124 East 30th Street. 1961. 186 pp. \$3. With his mother away for the summer and his father hurt in an accident, Davey Lee is suddenly called upon not only to take care of the house but also to run the family boat-renting business. Also, he has to help take care of the river-light for the Coast Guard.

ROBERTS, M. D. *Get with It, Joan*. New York 18: Ives Washburn, Inc., 119 West 40th Street. 1961. 191 pp. \$2.95. Here is a career novel that deals realistically with the meticulous training of a good nurse at a large city hospital. It tells of Joan Wood, who had always wanted to be a nurse and made a bargain with her reluctant parents that she be allowed to take nursing training if she first went to junior college. When she was finally enrolled at New York

Hospital, she started her three years there as a scared little probie, but gradually began to gain knowledge, skill, and confidence. Throughout this long period of hospital work, she found the phrase, "get with it, Joan," a splendid reminder of her purpose when it was offered at the psychological moment by hospital personnel and friends.

ROBINSON, C. A., JR. *The First Book of Ancient Egypt*. New York 22: Franklin Watts, Inc., 575 Lexington Avenue. 1961. 64 pp. \$1.95. Here is an elemental but informative and interesting story about ancient Egypt.

ROEHM, A. W.; M. R. BUSKE; HUTTON WEBSTER; and E. B. WESLEY. *The Record of Mankind*, second edition. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company. 1961. 648 pp. (7" x 9 $\frac{3}{4}$ "). The authors present a one-year course in world history. They have sought to weave the threads of world history into a meaningful pattern (1) by the use of simple, direct language, comprehensible to the average high-school students; (2) by use of a simple, coherent organization of relatively few chapters (24 chapters); (3) by the incorporation of usable teaching and learning aids, graded to different levels of pupil ability, and illustrations and maps that are closely integrated with the text; and (4) by emphasis upon the growing interdependence of people and nations in a world of vanishing distances.

ROSS, G. E. *Know Your Presidents and Their Wives*. Chicago 80: Rand McNally & Company, Box 7600. 1960. 72 pp. \$2.95. Here is interesting and accurate information about our Presidents and their wives from Washington to Kennedy. Each short write up is accompanied by a photograph. The stories of their lives add color and a note of romance to the political history of their times. Here is a pictorial record of the changes in fashions as well as changes in politics during our nation's history.

SAINT-EXUPERY, ANTOINE DE. *Night Flight*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1961. 128 pp. 50¢. The story of hazardous flights made by night through the dangers of darkness and the destruction of sudden Andian storms—the story of men who risk their lives to deliver mail in flimsy crates.

SAMUELSON, A.; ROMNEY, ROBINSON; and G. B. BALDWIN. *Study Guide and Workbook for Economics*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 330 West 42nd Street. 1961. 244 pp. \$2.50. Here is a student-oriented study help and review designed to aid in mastering the material in *Economics*, 4th edition. This workbook follows the book closely and reviews each chapter in relation to the preceding chapter. It guides the student in his study by directing his thinking toward the most important points in each chapter. Every chapter contains an introductory orientation section—a series of discussion questions; essay question; and multiple-choice, true-false, and completion questions. Some of the questions are answered so that the student may check himself. The questions range from the moderately easy to the quite difficult in an effort to exercise the student's knowledge. There is a new section on "How To Read and Understand Graphs."

SAVAGE, KATHARINE. *The Story of Africa, South of the Sahara*. New York 3; Henry Z. Walck, Inc., 101 Fifth Avenue. 1961. 184 pp. \$4. South of the Sahara Desert is a land of violent contrasts. There are arid deserts and fertile farmlands; jagged coasts and gentle harbors; towering mountains and low-lying plains. In the cities, extremes of wealth and poverty lie side by side. Medicine is taught in modern universities, while in deep jungles primitive people are cured of disease by witchcraft.

SCHERY, R. W. *The Lawn Book*. New York 11: The Macmillan Company, 60 Fifth Avenue. 1961. 215 pp. \$5.95. The author covers each aspect of planning, planting, and maintaining lawn grasses suited to any climate in the United States. Emphasis is on understanding the cultural needs of the individual grass plant, so that the care of a lawn becomes a logical outgrowth and not a set of isolated theoretical rules. His aim is a book to help the home owner care for his lawn easily, economically, and pleasantly.

SECHRIST, E. H., and JANETTE WOOLSEY. *It's Time for Easter*. Philadelphia 2: Macrae Smith Company, 225 South 15 Street. 1961. 255 pp. \$3.75. Two of America's favorite anthologists combine their talents for narrative and research in a handsome tribute to Easter. Beginning with a brief form of the Biblical narrative from the Synoptic Gospels, the authors trace the origins of curious symbols and Easter customs through the folkways of many lands, ancient and modern, from the pomegranate, once sacred to Demeter and Persephone in the Greek rites of spring, to the pretzel—now a year-round children's favorite—which had its origin in the fifth century A.D. as a symbol of reverence and an offering to beggars.

SHEPHERD, JEAN. *The America of George Ade*. New York 16: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 210 Madison Avenue. 1960. 284 pp. \$4. George Ade (1866-1944) is one of the greatest comic writers America has yet produced. It can be said without exaggeration that his "Fables in Slang," published around the turn of the century in a Chicago newspaper, actually created modern American humor; he marks the transition from the humor of Artemus Ward and Mark Twain to such modern writers as Ring Lardner, S. J. Perelman, James Thurber, and Robert Benchley. He was also, however, a great realistic writer, as the short stories in this volume reveal. Most of them have been reprinted here for the first time in forty or fifty years.

SHERBURNE, ZOA. *Ballerina on Skates*. New York 16: William Morrow & Company, Inc., 425 Park Avenue, South. 1961. 189 pp. \$2.95. Karen won a place in the chorus line, and the whirl began. First stop for the show was San Francisco, and then it would travel across the country. As the tour progressed, Karen showed a knack for comic routines, and the show's choreographer, Lance Preston, took an interest in her. Together they worked out a clown number that was an immediate hit and gave Karen a featured spot in the show.

SLOANE, E. H. *Words and Their Ways*. Annapolis, Maryland: The Owl Press. 1961. 128 pp. \$1.75. Each chapter of *Words and Their Ways* presents the significant words of a basic category of thought. For example, Chapter 5, "Kith and Kin," deals with those words that pertain to scientific classification and philosophical generalization. And Chapter 13, "All Good Acts," deals with the terms and problems of ethical behavior. As the words are introduced in an informal essay on a particular category, they are interpreted in relation to the literary, artistic, philosophical, and religious problems that have centered on them.

By uncovering a word's etymological roots and by relating it to other more familiar words in the same category of meaning, the author gives the reader a grasp of the meanings that matter—those that determine the way we view the world, those that in large measure create our minds. He has also singled out those words—a few more than 1,250—that have affected the thinking of educated men from the Greek Enlightenment to the present. The reader who masters the shades of meaning that have accrued to these words is well advanced on the road to a liberal education.

SMITH, H. F.; G. G. BRUNTZ; E. W. TIEGS; FAYE ADAMS. *Your Life as a Citizen*, revised edition. Boston 17: Ginn & Company, Statler Building, Back Bay P.O. 191. 1961. 640 pp. \$5.20. This book shows students the vital part citizenship plays in their everyday activities and teaches them desirable citizenship practices to follow. It covers all aspects of study needed to train students for the responsibilities of democratic citizenship, such as appreciation of our national heritage and American enterprise system; descriptions of local, state, and Federal government; consideration of vital civics problems: rights and responsibilities of citizenship, voting, public opinion and propaganda, taxation, the role of government in our economy, conservation, international relations; discussions of citizenship in family, school, church, community, social groups; and emphasis on personal and vocational guidance, consumer education, and wise use of leisure time.

It also provides such study aids as pertinent introductions to each unit; frequent reviews in "Check on Your Reading" questions; many end-of-chapter activities which include discussion questions, vocabulary exercises, individual and group activities, reference readings; special sections on developing study skills; exercises to help students survey their own communities, local institutions, state, and a vocational field. There are many photographs which augment the text, drawings, up-to-date charts, thought-provoking cartoons, maps, and sample ballots, tax forms, rating scales, and test items and profiles.

SMITH, TALBOT. *Lawyer*. New York 11: The Macmillan Company, 60 Fifth Avenue. 1961. 201 pp. \$3.50. Against the background of private practice, membership in a firm, and public service both in Washington and in Michigan, the author describes, and illustrates with personal anecdotes, the varied opportunities open to a lawyer. A short appendix to the book gives a decision on an actual case—showing the law in operation.

SNYDER, LOUIS L. *Hitler and Nazism*. New York 22: Franklin Watts, Inc., 575 Lexington Avenue. 1961. 182 pp. \$1.95. There has been a deplorable tendency to gloss over the facts of the Nazi Regime from 1933 to 1945. Yet, the story of the Hitler Reich forms one of the darkest pages in history. It is a prime necessity that our people know what happened—lest we once again be faced with the same or a similar reversion to primitivism.

STEINBERG, W. B., and W. B. FORD. *Electricity and Electronics—Basic*, second edition. Chicago 37: American Technical Society, 848 East 58th Street. 1961. 270 pp. Anyone who wishes to feel at home in the world of modern technology must be familiar with the fundamentals of electricity and electronics. To make it possible to acquire this familiarity quickly and easily is the purpose of this book. The necessary information is presented in a direct and simple manner. Each step is clearly illustrated by photographs and drawings.

As the student proceeds through the text, he will gradually learn the convenient symbols used by engineers and technicians in all fields to represent electrical and electronic equipment on diagrams. At the end of each unit of study, there is a group of "Review Questions." These are provided to assist the reader to test his knowledge and to check his progress. "Interesting Things to Do" is what the authors have called the many fascinating projects that enable the student to demonstrate and apply what he learns in the text. These projects are not only interesting but they also produce useful articles and develop practical skills. Few tools are necessary and, generally, only materials commonly found in a home or school shop are required.

STRACHAN, M. P. *Mennonite Martha*. New York 18: Ives Washburn, Inc., 119 West 40th Street. 1961. 144 pp. \$2.95. Even though her mother was understanding and her father tried not to be too strict, being a good Mennonite was not easy for twelve-year-old Martha Sherfey, who longed to dress a little "fancy" sometimes instead of always in the "plain" way required by the church. Martha, her younger brother Johnny, and even the little ones all helped on their Pennsylvania farm, went to a one-room school for as long as the family could manage, and everyone got together for "snitz" parties, a spelling bee, or a barn raising for sociability.

STREET, J. M. *Drovers' Gold*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company, 432 Park Avenue, South. 1961. 159 pp. \$3. In 1880, when Duncan MacGregor ran away from home to join a drove of six hundred hogs and their rough, tough drivers, he had no idea of the hardship and danger he would encounter. When he was joined in his rugged trip over the drovers' road by Shadrach Muldoon, a footloose, banjo-playing, ballad-singing orphan, the excitement heightened as the boys teamed up to look for a treasure which might mean the fulfillment of their dreams.

SUTTON, FELIX. *The City Under the Sea*. New York 16: Duell, Sloan & Pearce, Inc., 124 East 30th Street. 1960. 156 pp. \$3. Ace Cooper, young scientist and technician, didn't know where he was going or what he was supposed to do when he went aboard the atomic submarine *George Washington*. It was a mysterious expedition that included a breath-taking trip beneath the polar ice, a midnight rendezvous off the coast of Africa, a dangerous encounter with an enemy sub. Not until they reached the fabulous city under the sea did Ace learn the details of his secret task.

SUTTON, MARGARET. *The Whispered Watchword*. New York 10: Grosset & Dunlap, 1107 Broadway. 1961. 180 pp. \$1. Wherever Judy goes, excitement and adventure are sure to follow. In fact, no sooner do Judy and her FBI husband Peter Dobbs arrive in Washington, D. C., than Judy is knee-deep in mystery and suspense.

TAYLOR, HAROLD. *Art and the Intellect*. New York 22: Doubleday and Company, Inc., 575 Madison Avenue. 1960. 62 pp. 75¢. One author's two essays on the moral and intellectual contribution of the creative arts were originally delivered at National Committee on Art Education Conferences in 1952 and 1960. Rejecting the theory that the intellect functions separately from other human faculties, he defines it as an activity of the whole organism, beginning in the senses with direct experience of facts, events, and ideas and involving the emotions. The general misunderstanding of the nature of the intellect has resulted in a minor role for the arts in schools and colleges.

TENNYSON, ALFRED LORD. *Idylls of the King and a Selection of Poems*. New York 22: The New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1961. 320 pp. 50¢. This edition contains the great 19th century poetic work on the Arthurian Legend in its entirety, something not usually found in modern editions. A representative selection of Tennyson's other poems, with excerpts from several of his larger works, is also included in the volume.

THEOBALD, ROBERT. *The Rich and the Poor: The Economics of Rising Expectations*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1961. 160 pp. 50¢. An analysis of specific economics measures that must be understood if the underdeveloped countries are to raise their productivity and increase their share of the economic wealth of the world.

THORNE, ALICE. *The Story of Madame Curie*. New York 36: Scholastic Book Services, 33 West 42nd Street. 1961. 160 pp. 35¢. This is a story of one of the world's greatest women.

TREECE, HENRY. *Viking's Sunset*. New York 19: Criterion Books, Inc., 6 West 57th Street. 1960. 182 pp. \$3.50. Returning home to find his village plundered and the buildings burned to the ground, the Viking chieftain Harald Sigurdson swears to pursue and destroy the ruthless raider, Haakon Redeye, no matter where he flees. Accompanied by a band of his stoutest neighbors, he sets sail after Haakon in a magnificent longboat, expecting to catch up with the raider in three days at the outside.

TURNER, ARLIN. *Nathaniel Hawthorne*. New York 3: Barnes & Noble, Inc., 105 Fifth Avenue. 1961. 159 pp. \$1. This author discusses the attitudes and beliefs of Hawthorne. He attempts to discover just what was in Hawthorne's mind and how this affected his writings. To one acquainted with Hawthorne's mind, its imprint is recognizable in almost every sentence.

VOEGELI, MAX. *Prince of Hindustan*. New York 3: Henry Z. Walck, Inc., 101 Fifth Avenue. 1961. 230 pp. \$3.50. What happens when a beggar boy discovers that he is a prince? Ahmad of Hindustan—whom readers of *The Wonderful Lamp* will recognize as Ali, the young beggar boy of Baghdad—soon found that learning to be an Indian prince was no easy matter. To begin with, he had to win back his kingdom from the wicked Rama Muni. This meant fierce fighting, with herds of trumpeting war-elephants thundering over the plain and traitors in his midst. There was the mystery of the black ankus to solve, and his beloved Princess of Peshawar to rescue—and how was he to set about that, when all he had to guide him was an old woman's riddle: "You will find her when you do what you would not do."

WEBB, R. N. *Trapped on North Island*. New York 16: Duell, Sloan & Pearce, Inc., 124 East 30th Street. 1961. 151 pp. \$3. It was a day never to be forgotten along the coast of New England. On that day Jimmy North and Nick MacLaren set forth in Jimmy's Boston Whaler for a day of water skiing. Luckily, at noon, with a storm coming up, they decided to head for North Island.

WEDDLE, FERRIS. *Blazing Mountain*. New York 22: Franklin Watts, Inc., 575 Lexington Avenue. 1961. 120 pp. \$2.95. Clint Wade glanced about him as he walked the wilderness trail. Even the evergreen needles were dust-coated and drooping. From the brittle grass and shrubbery to the tree crowns, the drought was something that one could see and feel deep inside himself. Fire seemed inevitable, and once a fire had started, the whole forest would explode into raging flames.

WEINSTEIN, WILLIAM. *The Automobile Engine*. Philadelphia 39: Chilton Company—Book Division, 56 & Chestnut Streets. 1961. 651 pp. \$7.95. Specifically written for use in vocational-technical schools, the book includes fundamental knowledge necessary for the understanding of the purpose and function of all components of the modern automobile engine. It includes information on ignition and carburetion which the student must have to understand the engine and its functions. The author has also described, in some detail, the most popular service operations as an exploratory activity for training on the job, in school, or at home. Profusely illustrated with precise and accurate illustrations, the book gives a picture description of every new engineering feature of present-day engines, such as three-stage cooling, automatic cooling fan control, triple carburetion, and fuel injection systems.

WELCH, RONALD. *Escape from France*. New York 19: Criterion Books, Inc., 6 West 57th Street. 1961. 183 pp. \$3.50. Learning that his French relatives, the D'Assaillys, are threatened with imprisonment and execution during the turbulent years of the French Revolution, young Richard Carey volunteers to go secretly to France and help them escape to England.

WHITE, ANNE TERRY. *The First Men in the World*. New York 36: Scholastic Book Services, 33 West 42nd Street. 1961. 160 pp. 35¢. This story about man covers a million years.

WILKIE, K. E. *The Man Who Wouldn't Give Up: Henry Clay*. New York 18: Julian Messner, Inc., 8 West 40th Street. 1961. 192 pp. \$2.95. Three times candidate for the presidency of the United States, Henry Clay never let his personal ambitions override his firm belief in the ideals of sound government and the preservation of the freedoms insured by the Constitution. His famous words, "I'd rather be right than be President," are the key to a driving personality whose long-range views saved the Union in three dramatic crises and earned him prominence as The Great Compromiser.

WILLIAMS, U. M. *The Earl's Falconer*. New York 16: William Morrow and Company, Inc., 425 Park Avenue, South. 1961. 189 pp. \$2.95. The bird had escaped from the knight who owned her; the boy, Dickon, was a yeoman's son, whose lowly rank forbade him to own or fly so noble a bird. But Dickon loved falconry and found that his longing to fly the hawk outweighed his common sense, which bade him return her immediately to the castle. Punishment was swift and sure, but the Earl, a true nobleman, tempered justice with mercy.

WILSON, E. S., and C. A. BUCHER. *College Ahead*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 750 Third Avenue. 1961. 216 pp. \$4.50. This book, now revised and brought up to date, includes new information on government loans, tuition changes, early admission plans, new testing programs, and placement procedures. In addition to discussion of intelligence and aptitude tests, of prep-school grading, tutoring, and college admission requirements, this volume analyzes the advantages and disadvantages of public and private schools and colleges, of four-year and junior colleges, coed and non-coed, urban and rural, and denominational schools. It advises students on financial questions, how and when to visit, how to apply to a college, and how to make the first college year a good one.

WILSON, J. D., editor. *Coriolanus*. New York 22: Cambridge University Press, 32 East 57th Street. 1961. 328 pp. \$3.75. A new edition of Shakespeare's interesting play, *Coriolanus*. It also contains very full notes, introductions by the editor, a stage history of the play, and a glossary.

WYNDHAM, LEE. *Susie and the Ballet Family*. New York 36: Scholastic Book Services, 33 West 42nd Street. 1961. 120 pp. 25¢. This is a story about ballerina dancing.

WYSS, J. D. *Swiss Family Robinson*. New York 36: Scholastic Book Services, 33 West 42nd Street. 1961. 252 pp. 35¢. This is the classic story of a family shipwrecked on a desert island and how they managed to survive.

YOUNG, BOB and JAN. *One Small Voice*. New York 18: Julian Messner, Inc., 8 West 40th Street. 1961. 192 pp. \$2.95. Gina Morgan's ambition was to be an opera singer. All her spare time was spent in practicing, until suddenly, in her senior year, she realized that her music had become a wall that had shut out friends and the stimulation of school activities. She auditioned for the lead in the Granada High operetta, hoping in this way to achieve popularity, but another girl won the role! Gina's world shattered, and the year which should have been happy and challenging was dull and dateless.

Pamphlets for Pupil-Teacher Use

Administration of the School Food Service Program. Sacramento: School Lunch Office, California State Department of Education. 1960. 83 pp. Suggests procedures for school districts that do not have trained business staffs.

Automation in Education: Machines and Men as Teachers and Learners. New York 27: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 525 West 120th Street. 1960. 27 pp. 50¢. Contains three articles: "Two Models of a Student" by Eugene Galanter; "A Do-it-yourself Kit for Programmed Instruction" by Ernest Z. Rothkopf; and "The Instructional Gestalt: A Conceptual Framework" by Lawrence Siegel.

The AV Index. Detroit 26: Audio-Visual Research Institute, 1346 Broadway. 1961. 56 pp. \$1.50. A guide to instructional material information in selected publications—classified.

BARNHART, E. L., and K. E. ANDERSON. *A Study of the Relationships Between Grade-Point Averages, Placement-Test Scores, Semester Hours Earned, and Area of Major Interest for the Group Who Entered the University of Kansas in the Fall of 1954.* Lawrence, Kansas: University of Kansas Press, 114 Flint Hall. 1961 (January). 36 pp. Free. Discusses the problem of prediction of student success as a freshman in college.

BEERY, J. R. *Professional Preparation and Effectiveness of Beginning Teachers.* Coral Gables, Florida: Graphic Arts Press, University of Miami. 1960. 94 pp. Includes discussing the problem, studying the beginning teacher, estimating teaching effectiveness, collecting data, and analyzing and interpreting the data. Concludes with summary and conclusions.

BENNETT, L. S. *Social Studies for Junior High: Our Nation's History.* Larchmont, New York: Youth Education Systems, Inc., 6 Railroad Way. 1961. 112 pp. \$1.50. Planned for use with any social studies textbook, this text-and-answer book may be utilized for both review at the end of a unit or for "cram" before the finals. Each of the units is followed by objective-type questions to familiarize students with test-taking techniques, and three complete examinations are reproduced. The answer section is easily removable so that teachers who prefer that their students not have prior access to answers may separate them from the book before it is distributed for classroom use.

BYRN, D. K. *How To Express Yourself Vocationally.* Washington 9, D. C.: National Vocational Guidance Association, Inc., 1605 New Hampshire Avenue, N.W. 1961. 32 pp. 30¢. A handbook for students, parents, teachers, counselors, and principals.

CLINCHY, EVANS. *Schools for Team Teaching.* New York 22: Educational Facilities Laboratories, 477 Madison Avenue. 1961. 64 pp. Free. Profiles of significant schools.

Conventional Gymnasium vs. Geodesic Field House. New York 22: Educational Facilities Laboratories, 477 Madison Avenue. 1961. 16 pp. Free. A report on one school's physical education facilities.

Curriculum Materials. Washington 6, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, NEA 1201 Sixteenth, N.W. 1961. 43 pp. \$1.25. A listing of curriculum materials exhibited at the 16th Annual Conference of ASCD in Chicago.

Educational Testing Service: Annual Report, 1959-1960. Los Angeles 27: Educational Testing Service, 4640 Hollywood Boulevard. 1960. 108 pp. Annual report of the president.

18 Questions and Answers About Radiation. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1961. 50 pp. 25¢. Answers to some of the more frequently asked questions on radiation.

General Motors Aids to Educators. Warren, Michigan: Educational Relations Section, Public Relations Staff, General Motors Corporation, General Motors Technical Center. 1961. 23 pp. Lists supplementary teaching materials available from G.M.; includes manuals, charts, booklets, films, and other materials for educational purposes.

GRAHAM, K. C. *National Electrical Code and Blueprint Reading.* Chicago 37: American Technical Society, 848 East Fifty-Eighth Street. 1961. 60 pp. \$4. This is a pictorial presentation of safety measures and standard practices in electrical wiring based on the latest Code. Code sections are linked to visual examples and are grouped around five specific fields of application. The subject of electrical blueprint reading is carried on simultaneously as a part of instructional procedures. Electrical plans are inserted at key points throughout the text.

The Home Study Review. Washington 6, D. C.: The Home Study Review, 2000 K Street, N.W. 1961. 48 pp. \$3 per year (4 issues). Foreign \$4. Single copies \$1. Discusses the use of teaching machines, Federal aid to higher education, home study, etc.

HULLFISH, H. G. *Problems of Educational Freedom.* Bloomington, Indiana: Indiana University Press, Box 47. 1961 (March). 40 pp. \$1.25. Papers presented by the author to the annual conference of Phi Delta Kappa and Pi Lambda Theta at Indiana University.

LILES, PARKER; L. A. BRENDEN; and RUTHETTA KRAUSE. *Typing Mailable Letters.* New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 330 West 42nd Street. 1960. 110 pp. Contains practice projects in placement, punctuation, proofreading, and production.

LIPPINCOTT, GERTRUDE, editor. *Focus on Dance, 1960.* Washington 6, D. C.: American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W. 1960. 72 pp. \$2. This is the first volume of a series to be issued annually by the National Section on Dance of the AAHPER. The content is based on a poll of dance educators throughout the country. Each volume is planned to be of interest to dancers, teachers, and students in the four main areas of dance education: modern, folk, square, and social dancing.

The current issue presents articles on a wide range of subjects such as "Looking Ahead at Folk Dance," "Men in Dance Education," "To Make a Dance Film," and "Building an Audience." Featured are interviews with four pioneer dance educators. The over-all plan is to keep the annual flexible to meet the year-by-year changes in the needs and interests of dance educators. Three departments of special value, however, will be continuing features—"Materials for Dance Teaching," listing the newest records, books, magazines and films; "Dance Research and Theses," listing unpublished works and research, completed and in process; and "Activities of the National Section on Dance."

MAGNUSON, H. W.; M. W. GIPE; and T. A. SHELLHAMMER. *Evaluating Pupil Progress.* Sacramento, California: State Department of Education. 1960. 236 pp. Prepared to assist teachers in gathering and interpreting evidences of growth in pupils' skills, knowledges, attitudes, and understandings.

Attention is directed to the methods of measurements of achievement in the skill subjects as well as to the uses of anecdotal records, check lists, autobiographies, and rating scales.

The National Interest and the Teaching of English. Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 508 South Sixth Street. 1961. 148 pp. A report on the status of the profession. Part I discusses what has to be done about the national need to improve the teaching of English, Part II discusses the national problem, and Part III discusses the need for more teachers, better teachers, better teaching conditions, and more and better basic research—all in English.

NEA Research Bulletin. Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, Northwest. 1961 (February). 31 pp. 60¢. Includes school statistics, length of school day, merit rating in business and industry, state tax collection, reporting to parents, and "What Do You Know About Today's Schools?"

New Schools for New Education. New York 22: Educational Facilities Laboratories, 477 Madison Avenue. 1961. 54 pp. Free. A report of a conference and architectural presentations of five schools.

1960 Handbook on Women Workers. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1960. 160 pp. 45¢. Contains basic information on women's employment and occupations, including age, marital status, earnings, educational requirements, and state laws affecting the employment of women.

NOLDE, ELLEN-JARDEN. *The United States in the United Nations.* Chicago 3: North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Suite 832, First National Bank Building. 1961. 64 pp. 75¢. This booklet represents a natural supplement to the material contained in the final chapters of most American history textbooks. Moreover, since issues concerning almost every area of the world are discussed in the Security Council and General Assembly, the United Nations provides an excellent focus for an "end of the year review."

PARKER, FRANKLIN. *African Development and Education in Southern Rhodesia.* Columbus 10: Ohio State University Press, 164 West Nineteenth Avenue. 1960. 178 pp. \$1.75. The author reports following a visit for an entire academic year in Southern Rhodesia.

PESKIN, A. S. *Mathematics for Junior High.* Larchmont, New York: Youth Education Systems, Inc., 6 Railroad Way. 1961. 128 pp. \$1.50. Covering introductory algebra and geometry as well as providing a review of arithmetic fundamentals, this text and workbook offers a new and interesting approach. Each unit begins with a section headed "Do you understand these concepts?", "Can you do these fundamentals?", and "Watch for these trouble spots!" Then follows a group of related problems, geared to the student's growing capacities. Six complete official examinations are included, with answers on removable pages.

Professional Salaries for Professional Teachers. Washington, D. C.: Educational Finance, NEA, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W. 1961. 21 pp. 10 for \$1. Citing low salaries as one of the principal causes of the teacher shortage, the booklet goes on to explore what it would cost to deal with the situation. Just to maintain the *status quo*, it says, we must provide, in the next four years, 218,000 more teachers for 4 million more pupils, and continuing annual improvements in teacher salaries (5.4% in recent years) would bring the average teacher's salary up to \$6,650 a year by 1964-65.

Public Relations Gold Mine. Washington 6, D. C.: National School Public Relations Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W. 1961. 64 pp. \$1.25. Contains selected articles of value for teachers and administrators whose responsibility includes school public relations.

Rankings of the States, 1961. Washington 6, D. C.: Research Division, National Education Association of the United States, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W. 1961. 44 pp. 75¢. This report contains 68 tables from which it is possible to establish a relationship between educational ratings and other ratings such as *per-capita* retail sales and *per-capita* revenue from taxes.

SCHAAF, W. L. *The High School Mathematics Library.* Washington 6, D.C.: National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W. 1960. 36 pp. A bibliography of publications for teachers, librarians, and student-classified.

SHARF, L. E.; WAYNE HAWKINS; and JOSEPH YOUNG, compilers and editors. *Uniformed Services Almanac.* Washington 4, D. C.: Uniformed Services Almanac, P.O. Box 400. 1961. 154 pp. \$1. This book contains facts about commissioned officers and enlisted men in the military services of the United States which is valuable information for the school guidance counselor and high-school pupils. Also available from the same address is the *Federal Employees 1961 Almanac* (\$1.00). Here is the latest information about Federal employees and the legislation enacted in 1960 that affect the Federal employee.

SMITH, A. E. *What Tests Can Tell You About You.* Chicago 11: Science Research Associates, Inc., 259 East Erie Street. 1961. 48 pp. This booklet offers youngsters a realistic view of what it is that psychological tests are attempting to do, but it cautions them that more than one test score is needed to provide reliable information about a pupil's performance. By identifying scholastic strengths and weaknesses of pupils, tests can be used along with other information to point toward correction of deficiencies, the booklet points out. Again, combined with other information, tests can also be used to place pupils in proper study groups, for scholarship awards and entrance to colleges and universities, for guidance of pupils, and for hiring and retraining of industrial employees.

STEWART, L. H., and A. D. WORKMAN. *Mathematics and Science Competencies for Technicians.* Sacramento, California: State Department of Education. 1960. 56 pp. A study of the training of electronics and chemical technicians with special emphasis on critical mathematics and science requirements.

Teaching by Television. New York 22: Ford Foundation, Office of Reports, 47 Madison Avenue. 1961 (January). 94 pp. Free. This is the second edition of a report of the same title published by the Ford Foundation and the Fund for the Advancement of Education in May 1959. It revises the first edition to incorporate recent developments in educational television.

The Teaching of French, Grades 9-12. Philadelphia: Board of Public Education. 1961. 69 pp. A course of study unusually rich in suggested techniques, methods, and resources for all phases of language teaching.

Training Opportunities for Women and Girls. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1960. 70 pp. 30¢. Discusses what training is available and where it can be obtained.

VOORHIES, W. T. *Television in Education, with Emphasis on Its Use at Indiana University*. Bloomington: Division of Research and Field Services, Indiana University. 1961. 54 pp. \$1.25. Discusses the beginning and use of TV, Indiana University's TV program, and problems and advantages.

WAETJEN, W. B., editor. *Human Variability and Learning*. Washington 6, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W. 1961. 96 pp. \$1.50. Papers and reports from the Fifth Curriculum Research Institute of ASCD devoted to this subject.

WALKER, J. G.; M. E. MARYE; M. H. BOLEY; and ANNE SVRCHEK. *Freedom Fires, Book Three*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace & Company, 750 Third Avenue. 1960. 232 pp. \$1.48. This is the third workbook (grade 11) of a 4-book high-school series—*Habits and Skills in Language Craft*—which aims to establish correct habits of language expression. The other three workbooks in this series are: *Higher Levels* (grade 12. 1960. 221 pp. \$1.48); *Trail Fires* (grade 10. 1960. 232 pp. \$1.48); and *Home Fires* (grade 9. 1960. 232 pp. \$1.40).

WILHOUSKY, P. J., director. *Music*. New York City: Board of Education. 1960. 50 pp. A report on the music program in New York City public schools with some observations as to its aims, activities, and achievements.

Books Received Too Late for Classification

Administering City and County School Programs. Washington 6, D. C.: The American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W. 1961. 128 pp. \$1.50. During the first week of December 1960, in Washington, D. C., a nation-wide group of nearly 200 city and county supervisors and directors of athletics, physical education, health education, recreation, and safety, met to find answers to the many pressing administrative problems. The results of their discussion and the supplementary papers and surveys prepared for the Conference are all included in this publication. This is the official report of the Third National Conference of City and County Directors; Supervisors; and Coordinators of Health, Athletics, Physical Education, Recreation, and Safety. Some of the problems discussed were: How can instruction and curriculum in elementary and secondary schools be improved? What about grouping—scheduling—recruitment and selection of teachers—spectator control—tort liability—total use of facilities—extra pay for extra services?

ASBELL, BERNARD. *When F.D.R. Died*. New York 17: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 383 Madison Avenue. 1961. 223 pp. \$4. The author has traveled thousands of miles and undertaken hundreds of interviews to discover not only what happened on that fateful day, but also *why* what happened became, for so many people, so personal an event.

ASIMOV, ISAAC. *Inside the Atom*. New York 16: Abelard-Schuman, Limited, 404 Fourth Avenue. 1961. 197 pp. \$3. The latest atomic discoveries have been incorporated in this newly revised edition.

BABIAN, HAIG, Executive Director. *The Permanent Frontier: An Illustrated History of the U.S. Economy in Action*. New York 17: New York University Institute of Economic Affairs, 475 Fifth Avenue. 1961. 128 pp. \$3.95; to educators, \$2.95. This volume is attractively put together, is written in a

sprightly style, and has a large amount of substance. The book enriches the economic content of the typical American history texts used in high schools. It is organized under three main topics: From Discovery to Popular Democracy; The Ordeals of Maturing; and Power and Responsibility. Throughout the book, one is made aware of how our nation remains great as expressed in the Foreword: "The United States did not become great, and will not remain so, merely because its proudest and most valued traditions are firmly rooted in earlier environments. It is the enduring ability to plant the seed of past harvests into the soil of present-day affairs that assures the United States an uninterrupted strain of resources for greatness."

BALL, ZACHARY. *Kep*. New York 11: Holiday House, 8 West 13th Street. 1961. 207 pp. \$2.95. This is the story of a sensitive fifteen-year-old who is as much at home in the world of nature as he is alone in the world of men. When Kep leaves the life he loves in the Florida scrub and moves to an unfamiliar town, he feels strange and lost. Moreover, he finds himself a substitute son in a family with serious troubles of its own. No matter how hard he tries, Kep can't solve the problems confronting him, so, in desperation, he takes to the woods.

BENARY-ISBERT, MARGOT. *Dangerous Spring*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 750 Third Avenue. 1961. 252 pp. \$3.25. In this book, we share the emotions, the hopes, and fears of a doctor's family in Germany during the last days of World War II and the beginning of the American occupation. Through Karin Lorenz, the doctor's seventeen-year-old daughter, the family is invited to stay with a young and dedicated minister, Pastor Helmut Lobelius, in a village away from the direct path of the oncoming U.S. Army and the Allied bombers.

BOWMAN, W. P., and R. H. BALL. *Theatre Language*. New York 14: Theatre Arts Books, 333 Sixth Avenue. 1961. 444 pp. \$6.95. Fifteen years in preparation, this first extensive dictionary of the special language of the theatre defines over 3,000 terms and phrases and cross references many more.

BROWN, K. E., and E. S. OBOURN. *Offerings and Enrollments in Science and Mathematics in Public High Schools*. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1961. 97 pp. 35¢. Contains a discussion and summary of the offerings in these two subject areas in the grades in which these subjects are usually offered. The data are for the school year 1958-59 and include 4,228 usable return from a randomly selected sample in science and 4,254 in mathematics.

CLEVEN, CATHRINE. *Flight Angel*. Chicago 10: The Reilly and Lee Co., 325 W. Huron Street. 1961. 192 pp. \$3.50. This is the story of the training of an airline stewardess. Coral Sands, in an effort to forget her lost love, applies for a job as an airline hostess. She is sent to the training school of Coastal Airlines in Miami Springs, Florida. Her first months as a fledgling stewardess are full of hard work, fun, romance—and mystery!

COSTELLO, LAWRENCE, and G. N. GORDON. *Teach with Television*. New York 22: Hastings House, Publishers, 151 East 50th Street. 1961. 192 pp. \$5.50. This manual shows how to produce and use televised instruction most effectively on all educational levels from the elementary school through the university. It is about *instructional television*—how, when, and where to use it.

"It is, simply, the attempt to *teach* in a *formal* manner over television on any level of schooling," the authors point out in their introduction. "We mean that a specific course of study has been conceived for broadcast to a group of stu-

dents either at home or in school. Television is the medium of communication to pupils; a teacher is usually the main medium of instruction. Instructional television may employ any or all of the theatrical, visual or audio devices presently used in commercial or educational broadcasting. Its objectives, however, are specific, and possibly different from those involved in either type of broadcasting. Instructional television is supposed to *teach*. Students are supposed to *learn*. If instructional television fails on either count, it has failed absolutely.

CROWDER, N. A., and G. C. MARTIN. *Trigonometry: A Practical Course*. New York: Doubleday and Company, Inc., Garden City. 1961. 260 pp. \$3.95. This Tutor Text is a lively, complete course in elementary trigonometry. After introducing the concepts of ratio and proportion, the book goes on to show why these principles are basic to an understanding of trigonometry and how they are used to determine the size of angles and the length of sides in a triangle. In the process, the reader discovers the importance of right triangles in the solution of trigonometric problems, learns the derivations of trigonometric functions, and is taught how to use these functions as simple and direct short cuts to the solution of everyday problems.

Curriculum Bulletins. Eugene: Curriculum Bulletin, University of Oregon, School of Education. These multigraphed bulletins cover many areas of the curriculum. Volume XVI No. 206 is an *Annotated Bibliography and Index of the Curriculum Bulletins* (1960, 14 pp., free). This Bulletin is a complete listing of the other bulletins available with prices included. Some of these include: *Medieval Civilization* (1960. 16 pp. 60¢); *Review of Research* (1960. 32 pp. 90¢); *Grammar, A Tool for Better Composition* (1960. 11 pp. 60¢); *Activities in the Language Arts* (1960, 19 pp. 65¢); *Meeting Individual Differences* (1960, 13 pp. 60¢); *A Bibliography for the Professional Book Shelf in School Libraries* (1960. 6 pp. 25¢); *A Simple Theory of Secondary School Music* (1960. 6 pp. 25¢); *The Ungraded Primary School* (1960. 40 pp. \$1.60); *The Community Power Structure and Its Influence Upon School Elections* (1961. 14 pp. 55¢); and *The Teaching of Grammar* (1961. 20 pp. 75¢).

A subscription is available at \$7.50 per year (January to December). This includes a minimum of ten bulletins per year.

DIAS, E. J. *One-Act Plays for Teenagers*. Boston: Plays, Inc., 8 Arlington Street. 1961. 348 pp. \$5. This widely varied collection of one-act comedies for teenagers presents dramatic material designed to fill the entertainment needs of modern young people. The situations range from the familiar pranks of high-school "cut-ups" to out-of-this-world science fiction with a comic twist.

Directory of Accredited Camps and Camps Awaiting Accreditation. Martinsville, Indiana: American Camping Association, Bradford Woods. 1961. 264 pp. Camps are listed alphabetically by states. All are members of the American Camping Association. Those camps whose names appear in bold type have been visited by representatives of the American Camping Association, have shown compliance with the A.C.A. Standards, and are entitled to use and display the camp member seal. The remaining camps (name printed in regular type) includes those camps which have not as yet been visited plus camps for which standards have not as yet been adopted. Information given for each camp was furnished by the owner of operating organization, except in some instances where the directory information questionnaire was not returned; in such cases information was taken from the files of the American Camping Association.

DOUGLAS, W. O. *Muir of the Mountains*. Boston 7: Houghton Mifflin Co., 2 Park Street. 1961. 184 pp. \$1.95. In his eagerness to learn about the dramatic and beautiful world in which we live, this naturalist frequently risked his life. He climbed the highest mountains of our western ranges, crossed deeply crevassed Alaskan glaciers, accompanied only by his brave little dog, Stickeen, or wandered alone through hundreds of miles of wilderness, carrying only dry bread and a blanket. He was one of our first great conservationists—a brave, bright, able man—who saved for his nation the beauties of Yosemite, a few of the majestic sequoia groves, and other natural wonders being plundered by greedy men.

Dropouts: Number One Challenge to America's Schools. New York 16: National Committee on Employment of Youth, 419 Park Avenue South. 1961. (March) 20 pp. Discuss why this is the number one challenge and reports on four experimental programs to develop techniques to meet this challenge.

DUNCAN, R. L. *Reluctant General*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co., 300 Park Avenue, South. 1961. 289 pp. \$5. Here is the fascinating life story of Albert Zebulon Pike, schoolteacher, travel writer, poet, lawyer, politician, gourmand, 32nd degree Mason, General in the Confederate Army, and great champion of the rights of the American Indians.

DURANT, JOHN. *Highlights of the Olympics*. New York 22: Hastings House, Publishers, Inc., 151 E. 50th Street. 1961. 60 pp. \$3.95. In 776 B.C. in the stadium at Olympia in Greece, Coroebus, a cook from Elis, won a foot race of approximately two hundred yards, and thus became the first victor on record of the Olympic Games. Since then there have been many Olympic Games, both ancient and modern, and, of course, hundreds of winners from many different countries. The author, before he wrote this book, decided that interest in the Olympics centered on the individual stars as well as in the history of the occasion itself. In each Olympiad a few figures have stood out, and it is these men—and later, women—whom he describes in detail.

Electronics (Electro-Mechanical). Sacramento: California State Department of Education. 1961. 184 pp. Consists of laboratory experiments and information sheets in technical education.

EPSTEIN, SAM and BERYL. *The First Book of Washington, D. C.* New York 22: Franklin Watts, Inc., 575 Lexington Avenue. 1961. 80 pp. \$1.95. Did you know that the city of Washington, D. C., was planned by a French engineer, the inside of the Capitol dome was painted by an Italian artist, the Smithsonian Institution was donated by an English scientist, Thomas Jefferson kept grizzly bears on the White House lawn, the Supreme Court has no jury, and most of the nearly seven million bills printed daily in Washington are dollar bills?

FLOHERTY, J. J., and MIKE McGRADY. *Whirling Wings*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Company, East Washington Square. 1961. 160 pp. \$3. This is the complete story of the helicopter and the men responsible for its invention and development, starting with the first practical design for the helicopter, which was made by Leonardo da Vinci, and continuing to the present. The authors describe the uses of the helicopter in wartime and in peacetime (for rescue work, commutation, traffic control, farming, etc.), and discuss the exciting future of the "whirlybird."

FREEDMAN, RUSSELL. *Teenagers Who Made History*. New York 11: Holiday House, 8 West 13th Street. 1961. 284 pp. \$3.50. Before they reached the age of twenty, the young people in this book had already earned them-

selves places in history. Although their accomplishments were widely divergent, each individual deserves to be well remembered because of his outstanding contribution to the world.

GOTTLIEB, B. S. *What a Girl Should Know About Sex*. Indianapolis 7: The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Inc., 730 N. Meridian Street. 1961. 190 pp. \$3.25. Because of its special emphasis on *normal* behavior, this book will help every girl understand the physiological and psychological changes that transform her into a normal, happy, complete woman.

GRIEDER, CALVIN; T. M. PIERCE; and W. E. ROSENSTENGEL. *Public School Administration*. New York 10: The Ronald Press Company, 15 East 26th Street. 1961. 650 pp. \$8. This book has been written for the typical introductory course in general school administration. Designed primarily as a textbook for students preparing to become superintendents of schools, it also can be used as a guide by elementary- or secondary-school principals. Moreover, it will help members of boards of education, teachers, and other school personnel understand the school administrator's responsibilities, problems, and relationships in the educational enterprise he heads.

Though the major emphasis is placed upon the administration of local school districts, the book attempts to give a complete picture of the administrative situations encountered in the American educational system. Oriented toward accepted and sound theory, the book sets forth the best principles, practices, and procedures in modern public school administration.

In its chapter organization of the materials, the information in this book covers a wide range of topics. Included among them are the operation of American education on the local, state, and national levels; the administrative responsibilities for the instructional program and for teacher and pupil personnel; the management of financial and business problems in a period of large enrollments and increased costs; the planning for school plant utilization, maintenance, and insurance; and the improvement of school-community relations. The importance of widespread professional and lay cooperation in policy-making and management is constantly emphasized as the keystone of sound democratic administration.

GROBMAN, A. B. *High School Biology*. Boulder: BSCS High School Biology, Biological Science Curriculum Study, University of Colorado. 1960. During the last four years, a number of national curriculum studies have been established, with financing from the National Science Foundation, to undertake improvement of science curricula at various educational levels. The first of these, the Physical Sciences Study Committee undertook curriculum reform in high-school physics. Another, the School Mathematics Study Group, has undertaken activities for grade levels four through twelve. The Chemical Bond Approach and the Chemical Education Material Study are working on high-school chemistry. For biology, the Biological Sciences Curriculum Study BSCS, was established in 1958 under the auspices of the American Institute of Biological Sciences, a professional society representing over 84,000 biologists.

According to the AIBS grant proposal to the National Science Foundation in September 1958, the function of the BSCS is: "to evaluate the content of present biology course offerings, to determine what biological knowledge can and should be learned at each school level, and to recommend how this latter goal can best be achieved." A Steering Committee, under the Chairmanship of Dr. Bentley Glass of Johns Hopkins University, was organized to establish policy

for the Study. As the need arose, other standing Committees and special Committees have been established.

The BSCS opened its headquarters offices on the University of Colorado campus in Boulder in January 1959, with Dr. Arnold B. Grobman, formerly at the University of Florida, as its Director. It has been the policy of the BSCS to work with a small staff at the headquarters office and to use consultants and committees to as large an extent as possible. Through this procedure, over 1,200 persons have contributed their skills and experience. After considerable background work by the Committee on Content of Curriculum, under the Chairmanship of Dr. John Moore of Columbia University, the first BSCS Summer Writing Conference was held in Boulder, Colorado, in 1960.

Three teams of biologists were asked to prepare preliminary experimental versions of a new basic course—a *Green Version*, a *Yellow Version*, and a *Blue Version*—each using different approaches. Each prepared preliminary experimental materials including text, laboratory manuals, teacher's commentaries and guides, and brief techniques films. In all three of the versions, the laboratory takes a more important place than is found in most current biology courses and the emphasis is quite different. In these versions, the laboratory reflects both the investigatory as well as the illustrative function of laboratory work. The students not only examine materials, but they also conduct experiments and investigate real open-ended problems.

In August 1960, following the Summer Writing Conference, Coordinating Committees were appointed for the *Green*, *Yellow* and *Blue Versions* of the texts and for the laboratory materials. These four Committees are responsible for completing work on manuscripts of the versions during the 1960-61 school year and will form the nucleus of the 1961 Summer Writing Conference.

THE BLUE VERSION

The *Blue Version* develops the fundamental biological concepts with stress on the ideas and experimental approach of physiology and bio-chemistry. It begins with the basis of life in the properties and organization of matter. It then moves to the activities of these organizations as seen in the capture and use of energy, and then to the organ level, and then to the level of the whole organism and of populations. Genetics is couched in terms of the conservation and modification of molecular organization from generation to generation; evolution is the basis for long-term changes in the development of diversity among living organisms. The climax consists of a treatment of certain open-ended biological problems which face man himself as citizen of a socially organized community.

THE YELLOW VERSION

The *Yellow Version* begins with the whole organism, and man as exemplar of the animal, from a functional point of view. The traditional major functions are treated system by system, rarely going below the organ level. Next is a similar treatment for the green plant, with more detail and variety of examples. Concepts of evolution and adaptation are emphasized in the various examples. Then the student is confronted with the fundamental chemistry and dynamics of the living cell, including the detail of chemical action necessary to a genuine understanding of "being alive," including DNA, RNA and ATP. The remaining chapters concern micro-biology, diversity in the plant and animal kingdoms, genetics, reproductions and development, and evolution.

THE GREEN VERSION

The *Green Version* takes the individual organism as the primary unit of study. It is concerned with how these individuals are organized into populations, species and communities, and with what organisms do and how they do it. It starts with cycles of energy and materials in the biosphere, then turns to such structural units as individuals, populations and communities.

After describing taxonomic diversity of animals, plants, and micro-organisms, it deals with ecological diversity on land, in fresh water, and in the seas, and with geographical diversity among the continents and oceans, then with the history of life and the problem of evolution. The student then studies the cellular structures of organisms; genetics; the physiology and development of plants and animals; animal behavior; the relations of the parts to the functioning of the whole organism; and the human animal in the perspective of his biological setting.

A TRY-OUT PERIOD

During the 1960-61 school year, 118 teachers in 15 BSCS Testing Centers and 13 Independent Test Schools are using the preliminary experimental materials with 14,000 students. Each of the 15 Testing Centers includes from six to nine high-school biology teachers, one of whom acts as Center Leader and is responsible for Center management. Each Center also has a college biologist as Consultant, to act as a resource person on questions of biological content. In addition, 13 teachers in Independent Test Schools are using the experimental materials. In cooperation with Educational Testing Service, tests are being developed and administered to students to determine the extent to which they are achieving the goals set by the Summer Writing Conference participants.

FUTURE PLANS

A Second Writing Conference in 1961 will revise the BSCS materials. This Second Writing Conference will be followed by more extensive testing of the materials during 1961-62, before they are made generally available.

A committee has been working on a new kind of laboratory experience—a block approach to supplement the three versions of the biology course. In practice, the teacher would select one block, from among those available, for use during a particular school year. A laboratory block requires six weeks, with approximately five 50-minute class periods per week. For these six weeks, all class activities—whether discussion, laboratory work, reading, or field work—center on a single area of biology. These blocks are being tested during the 1960-61 school year. Eight of the BSCS Testing Centers and four of the Independent Test Schools are each utilizing one block in conjunction with their BSCS courses.

Although the major efforts of the BSCS have been directed towards a new general biology program suitable for use with virtually all high-school students, the special needs of the student talented in science have not been neglected. The Committee on the Gifted Student (under the Chairmanship of Dr. Paul Brandwein of Harcourt, Brace and Company) has been exploring the needs of teachers in their work with the science-prone student and has prepared an experimental volume which it is hoped will meet some of these needs.

Biological Investigations for Secondary-School Students, now in press, is to be shared by teacher and student, and includes 100 research prospectuses suitable for out-of-class investigations by the more able science student.

Thus the preparation of 32 preliminary experimental volumes and three films of the *BSCS High School Biology* is now completed. These are the materials being used in the 1960-61 BSCS Testing Program; all of them are subject to revision during the summer of 1961 on the basis of feedback received during the year.

With the exception of *Biological Investigations for Secondary-School Students* (the gifted student materials), these volumes are now available for classroom use *only in connection with the BSCS Testing Program*. However, persons interested in using the *revised* experimental editions in their classes during 1961-62 and others interested in biological education may purchase copies of of the *preliminary* editions for inspection.

The 32 volumes are available at the above address for \$44.25. However, purchase of individual materials can be secured at the following prices: *Blue Version* (9 vol.) \$11.25, Tests (3 vol.) \$3.50, Lab Manual (3 vol.) \$3.75, and Teacher's Guide to Lab Manual (3 vol.) \$4.; *Yellow Version* (8 vol.) \$11.75, Text (2 vol.) \$2.75, Lab Manual (3 vol.) \$4.50, and Teacher's Guide to Lab Manual (3 vol.) \$4.50; *Green Version* (9 vol.) \$12.75, Text (3 vol.) \$3.75, Lab Manual (3 vol.) \$4.25, and Teacher's Guide to Lab Manual (3 vol.) \$4.75; A *Teacher's Commentary* (1 vol.) applies to all three Versions, \$1.25; *Biological Investigations for Secondary-School Students* (1 vol.) \$2.25; and *Laboratory Blocks*, student edition (4 vol.) \$5.

GRZIMEK, BERNHARD and MICHAEL. *Serengeti Shall Not Die*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Company, 300 Park Avenue. 1961. 344 pp. \$6.95. Living in Serengeti Park with their cattle, sheep, and goats are some five thousand members of the most spectacular tribe in Africa, the Masai. Peaceful co-existence between big game and tribesmen became increasingly difficult and bitter controversy has arisen on the fundamental issue whether man has inviolable rights on earth or whether, at least within the Serengeti, wild life should not be given priority. This is the question which the author raises in this book. With its illustrations and accounts of tracing the migrations of wild herds in the Serengeti, it is a unique contribution to our knowledge of big game in Africa.

A Guide to Teaching Industrial Arts. Minneapolis: Office of the Superintendent, Minneapolis Public School. 1961. 74 pp. \$2.50. Presents materials for grades 7 through 12 relative to policies, procedures, and instructional techniques that are applicable in each of six major industrial arts area—of interest to administrators, counselors, and teachers in other subjects and to other interested persons.

HARRIS, L. E., and C. B. MOORE. *Keys to Quality*. Evanston, Illinois: National School Boards Association, 1940 Sheridan Road. 1960. 48 pp. This is the final booklet in the "Quest for Quality" series published by the National School Board Associations and the American Association of School Administrators. This booklet is one of the 14 in the series. The first 13 booklets are case histories of 28 actual matched school systems, covering the range of variety in district organization. The last booklet in the series, subtitled *Keys to Quality*, summarizes the evaluative principles and machinery used in the various school districts.

Although most of the school systems studied evaluate the total school program, they divide the job into six areas: the curriculum or instructional program, students, professional personnel, buildings, business operations, and school board operations.

The techniques used within those areas differ but, in general, the studies reveal that evaluation is a continuing process, citizens' advisory committees are widely used to inform the public, experimentation backed by research is encouraged, there is a high degree of staff participation, and strong administrative leadership characterizes the best programs.

Specific techniques, such as public opinion polls, parent-teacher conferences, in-service workshops, student testing, reports to the board of education, and ways of keeping the public informed vary extensively, although all of the districts used the techniques in some way.

The series is available from the National School Boards Association, 1940 Sheridan Road, Evanston, Illinois, for \$10, with discounts on quantity orders.

HAYES, S. P. *An International Peace Corps*. Washington 3, D. C.: Public Affairs Institute, 312 Pennsylvania Avenue, S.E. 1961. 96 pp. \$1; discount of 30% on orders of 10 or more copies. The author points out that the most effective program will enlist people of both sexes having varying kinds of skills and amounts of education. The IPC should be open to men and women over 18 years. Service should not be in lieu of military service. Pay or other emoluments should be comparable to those of enlisted men. The normal term of service should be two years abroad following training of some months. He also states, "A purely American program will not work, for only a few countries will go along and then grudgingly. The working teams should be made up of some of our youth and some of the nationals of the country where they are working. Likewise, some of the nationals of these countries should be at work on projects in the United States."

HEATH, M. A. *Iowa Hannah*. New York 22: Hastings House, Publishers, Inc., 151 E. 50th Street. 1961. 117 pp. \$2.75. This is almost a firsthand pioneer account because the author, born and educated in Iowa, heard the incidents herself as they were related by her father and mother who loved to talk about the early days of their state. The book tells the story of the Anthony Baker family pioneering to Iowa in a covered wagon in the year 1853.

HOLLINSHEAD, B. S., Director. *Survey of Dentistry*. Washington 6, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1785 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., 1961. 637 pp. \$10. The profession of dentistry, like its sister professions, has recognized that comprehensive appraisals need to be made from time to time to determine whether or not it is fully meeting its current and future responsibilities. The prospectus of the Survey stated that the objective of the study should be to "assess the achievement, resources, and potentialities of dentistry with a view to determining the desirable areas of future growth and development" for the purpose of "describing and recommending improved approaches, techniques, and methods for the better provision of an essential health service to the American people."

The survey of dentistry in the United States, reported in this volume, was begun by the American Council on Education in 1958 under the direction of a commission appointed by the Council. The membership of the Commission reflected not only representative views of the dental profession itself, but also the divergent interests of the public at large. Early in its existence the Commission determined that the Survey should: (1) hold the mirror up to dentistry by data-gathering, (2) analyze the problems at issue, and (3) make forthright recommendations about the profession's future course. The Survey examines the important problems of dentistry in the four fields of health, practice, education, and research.

HOLTON, J. S., et al. *Sound Language Teaching*. New York 22: University Publishers, Inc., 59 East 54th Street. 1961. 262 pp. \$5.50. Realizing that, to use new tools and new oral textbooks properly, practical assistance and guidance is needed, the authors here present a practical handbook for administrators, board of education members, and others. Here they attempt to answer the many questions that are being asked about language laboratories and sound language teaching.

Honors Inventory, 1960-61. Boulder: University of Colorado. "The Superior Student." 1961. (January). 40 pp. Describes Honors programs and provisions in four-year colleges and universities for superior students.

JACKSON, C. P. *Bullpen Bargain*. New York 22: Hasting House, Publishers, 151 E. 50th Street. 1961. 157 pp. \$2.95. The hero of this professional baseball story is one Bob Thomas, a young pitcher who finally gets his chance with a big ball club and reports to their Florida camp. There, before he even has time to get into a uniform, he finds he is traded to another club! It means another trip and a start with so many odds against him—even the first-string catcher—that the situation seems hopeless.

JANSEN, U. H. *Marking and Reporting Procedures in Secondary Schools of Texas*. Austin: Mrs. Mae Cowan, Secretary, Texas Study of Secondary Education, 217 Sutton Hall, The University of Texas. 1961. 30 pp. \$1. Contains a review of pertinent research and a description of practices reported by 113 secondary-school, principals, and 303 teachers in Texas.

JAWORSKI, I. D., and ALEXANDER JOSEPH. *Atomic Energy: The Story of Nuclear Science*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 750 Third Avenue. 1961. 218 pp. \$4.95. This book deals with the nature and structure of the atom, the way its various parts behave, and the methods by which man has learned to tap this remarkable source of energy. A vast wealth of scientific knowledge is presented here in logical sequence: the basic facts about the atom itself; splitting the nucleus; fission; fusion; and man's latest application of radioactive isotopes in research, medicine, industry, and agriculture. The book includes many safe home experiments such as producing and controlling electron beams, making a 110-volt A.C. Geiger counter, taking pictures of the disintegration of a nucleus by a cosmic particle, and constructing and using a diffusion cloud chamber.

LOVELL, A. C. B. *The Individual and the Universe*. New York 22: The New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1961. 144 pp. 50¢. This non-technical survey of the advances in astronomy contains brief discussions of the work of Galileo, Copernicus, Kepler, Herschel, Einstein, and others and a more detailed look at the developments in astronomy over the past thirty years. The author describes the theories of Jeans, Hoyle, Gamow, and the American engineer, Jansky, and how the latter's theory that radio waves were reaching the earth from outer space led to the construction of radio telescopes after World War II. He also offers an analysis of various theories on the origin of the universe, and gives some space to his own idea that the giant radio telescopes may yet solve the riddle.

MARCUS, R. B. *Galileo and Experimental Science*. New York 22: Franklin Watts, Inc., 575 Lexington Avenue. 1961. 134 pp. \$1.95. Galileo played an outstanding part in the development of modern science because at the core of his thinking was his insistence on measuring, weighing, and timing things. He first found the facts and from the facts deduced principles. Here is the simply told life portrait of a courageous man and a truly original thinker.

MARINACCI, BARBARA. *Leading Ladies*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company, 432 Fourth Avenue. 1961. 306 pp. \$4.00. Here are deft portraits of eleven of the greatest and most colorful of actresses, those spectacular productions of the human race.

MARTIN, CHARLES. *Letters from a Headmaster's Study*. New York 11: Oxford University Press, Inc., 114 Fifth Avenue. 1961. 134 pp. \$3. The author's letters, written to parents of young people, make provocative reading. They are composed in a personal, intimate, and informal style. Each is preceded by a prayer. They reveal a remarkable understanding not only of adolescents and their problems, but also of parents in their relationship to their children. They show sympathy and tolerance without sacrifice of principle, and a remarkable range of acquaintance with the interests and the problems of young people. The author reveals an understanding of people in relation to the fluid times in which we live and his commitment to the spirit of abiding values in a changing world.

MCALL, EDITH. *Adventures of the American Colonies*. New York 10: Grosset and Dunlap, 1107 Broadway. 1961. 126 pp. \$1. The book begins with the handful of hungry Frenchmen who try to make a go of Fort Caroline. There are the Spanish at Fort Augustine; the English who disappear without a trace from Roanoke Island; the enduring settlement at Jamestown; and the Plymouth Colony resulting from the Mayflower being off her course.

MILLER, M. A. *Bright Blue Beads*. Caldwell, Idaho: The Caxton Printers, Ltd. 1961. 329 pp. \$4.95. This is a fascinating story of an American family plunged unexpectedly into exotic Iran (Persia). From the newest American metropolis, Los Angeles, the author found herself and family transplanted into the midst of an ancient people, surrounded by today's—and tomorrow's—revolutions. What happened to Maxine Miller, her husband Sherman, American adviser to Iran, and their teenage son and daughter is told with high good humor, compassion, and concern.

MOSS, BERNICE, editor. *Health Education*. Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W. 1961. \$5. Mental Health and an understanding of the cultural and economic conditions that surround it have become a major part of the health education curriculum in the nation's schools. This emphasis upon mental health is an important trend noted in *Health Education*, a text for teachers published as a project of the Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education of the National Education Association (NEA) and the American Medical Association (AMA). This text is the fifth edition of a publishing project between the NEA and the AMA that began in 1924. It completely revises the content of the last edition, published in 1948. A comparison of the two editions shows the changing concepts of teaching in the health field. While the 1961 edition continues to stress such aspects of health education as diet, cleanliness, safety education, and other good health habits, it greatly broadens the emphasis on both mental health education in the curriculum and teacher understanding of the sociological development of students.

"Health problems are so closely intertwined with social problems that the two can hardly be considered or treated separately," the text explains. "The health educator has need for firm grounding in the principles drawn from economics, sociology, anthropology, social psychology, and other aspects of the social and behavioral sciences if he is to function effectively."

Because mental and emotional health growth depends on individual counseling and guidance, knowledge in these areas is necessary for educating each child about health. *Health Education* says that, by the time a student is ready to be graduated from high school, he should have healthful, effective living in his own personal life, his personal-social relations, and his community relations. The book cites a survey made of high-school students in which they ranked, in order, sex instruction, cancer, and juvenile delinquency as their top interests in health education. The text recommends that sex instruction, emphasizing adjustment to growth, should begin in the junior high school.

MURRAY, JOHN. *Modern Monologues for Young People*. Boston 16: Plays, Inc., Publishers, 8 Arlington Street. 1961. 154 pp. \$3.95. Here are twenty-five short, humorous monologues written to answer the demand for easy-to-perform platform material. Each monologue is a modern vignette, dramatizing in light-hearted, laugh-provoking fashion the ups and downs of life as today's young people view it. These sketches are simple to stage and require few properties (a chair, a box, a handbag).

NELSON, MARG. *Mystery at Land's End*. New York 3: Farrar, Straus and Cudahy, 19 Union Square West. 1961. 192 pp. \$2.95. When fifteen-year-old Marcie Magill got off the bus at Land's End, Oregon, to live with Aunt Emily and Uncle Ed, she looked forward to a normal sophomore year in high school. Instead, she was soon involved with a mystery, a prowler, a secluded house—and romance.

New Schools for New Education. New York 22: Educational Facilities Laboratories, 477 Madison Avenue. 1960. 54 pp. This is a report of a conference of architects and educators held at the University of Michigan. The occasion was the presentation by ten of the country's leading architects of a series of new design proposals for high school. These were based on the booklet. *Images of the Future* by J. Lloyd Trump, a publication of the NASSP.

NOBLE, M. C. S., JR. *Handbook on Rural Education*. Washington 6, D. C.: Department of Rural Education, NEA, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W. 1961. 168 pp. \$2. This handbook assembles within a single publication the principal data which reflects the status and trends of rural and rural-related public schools. Also it assembles data on the chief social and economic factors that seem most directly to affect the organization and programs of public schools serving rural people.

NORTH, STERLING. *Mark Twain and the River*. Boston 7: Houghton Mifflin Co., 2 Park Street. 1961. 184 pp. \$1.95. This non-fictionized biography of Mark Twain retains the mood of Twain's own books, but deals exclusively with real characters, real events, and historically verifiable facts. It covers the life of Samuel Clemens from November 1835, when his birth was heralded by Halley's comet flaming through the sky, to April 1910 when that comet returned from outer space to herald his death.

PEET, L. J., and L. S. THYE. *Household Equipment*. New York 16: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 440 Park Avenue, South. 1961. 371 pp. Within the past thirty years, household equipment has been dramatically affected by a great number of improvements. The authors provide the basic knowledge needed by the woman in the home to evaluate and determine what changes are necessary for the most efficient household. Practically all of this book has been rewritten, and most of the illustrations are new and show the newest types of equipment.

Reading for Enjoyment and Information. Philadelphia: Curriculum Office, Philadelphia Board of Education. 1961. 24 pp. An annotated reading list for tenth-grade pupil-classified under fiction and non-fiction and coded for advanced reading and easy reading.

RICHARDSON, F. H. *For Young Adults Only.* New York 18: Tupper and Love, Publishers, 119 West 40th Street. 1961. 133 pp. \$2.95. Good sound and sympathetic advice, founded on experience and observation, is what is so often needed in the teenage years, a time of indecision and confusion for so many young people. His medical practice and his experience as a parent himself has given the author a vantage point from which to help and advise young people on the values and responsibilities of life and the successful achievement of adulthood.

RIEDMAN, S. R. *Water for People.* New York 16: Abelard-Schuman, Limited, 404 Fourth Avenue. 1961. 156 pp. \$3. The most recent data about water engineering and conservation projects throughout the world, such as the Aswan Dam and the French "TVA" development of the Rhone River, has been incorporated into this revised, comprehensive picture of the role of water in history as a chemical and a natural resource.

RUBIN, ELIZABETH. *The Curies and Radium.* New York 22: Franklin Watts, Inc., 575 Lexington Avenue. 1961. 112 pp. \$1.95. Pierre and Marie Curie are perhaps the most remarkable husband-and-wife team in the history of science. Together they set out to isolate the mysterious radioactive substance in the masses of pitch-blende ore available to them in the old shed that was their laboratory.

SCHAIN, R. L. *Discipline: How To Establish and Maintain It.* Valley Stream, Long Island: Teachers Practical Press, Inc., 47 Frank Street. 1961. 40 pp. \$1.75. Discusses the problem of discipline, setting routines, preventive discipline, corrective discipline, and a final discussion on the idea that good discipline doesn't just happen.

SHOCKET, MICHAEL. *Cinq Annees De Francais.* Volume V. New York 22: Cambridge University Press, 32 East 57th Street. 1961. 256 pp. \$1.75. This is Volume 5 of a five-year course in French. It is a text in which the very minimum of English is used. The emphasis is on lecture, question and answer, and conversation. The approach is modern and will appeal most effectively to the advanced student.

SIMPSON, R. E., and R. A. MARTINSON. *Educational Programs for Gifted Pupils.* Sacramento: California State Department of Education. 1961. (January). 288 pp. This is the final report of a study of educational programs for gifted pupils in the schools of California.

SMITH, V. E., editor. *The Philosophy of Physics.* Jamaica, New York: St. John's University Press. 1961. 85 pp. A series of four lectures on the Unity and Diversity of Natural Science, Maritain's Philosophy of the Sciences, the Structure of the Atom, and Does Natural Science attain Nature or only the Phenomena?

STANLEY, W. M., and E. G. VALENS. *Viruses and the Nature of Life.* New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Company, 300 Park Avenue, South. 1961. 224 pp. \$4.95. Few books are more timely than this book. Written for young people and adult laymen by a Nobel Prize winning virologist and a well-known writer, it presents the essential facts known about viruses and about the closely related fields of genetics and cancer research. It describes the significance of nucleic acid—a material which is probably destined to be of greater importance

to mankind than the materials producing atomic energy. In addition to Dr. Stanley, six other world authorities on virology have contributed chapters.

SWEZEY, K. M., editor. *After-Dinner Science*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 330 West 42nd Street. 1961. 192 pp. \$4.95. This new edition contains twelve fascinating new experiments—and more than a hundred others from the earlier volume—plus many new photographs, bringing the books completely up to date with demonstrations that relate to the space age. All of the tricks and stunts are fully illustrated. They show the reader how he himself can demonstrate the basic laws of scientific phenomena. Simple, everyday articles and utensils can be used for the experiments, demonstrating accurately and clearly the mysteries of science to everyone.

THOMAS, LOWELL, JR. *The Dalai Lama*. New York 16: Duell, Sloan and Pearce, Inc., 124 E. 30th Street. 1961. 161 pp. \$3.50. How the son of a peasant in the little border town of Tsinghai was recognized as the Dalai Lama is a fascinating tale in itself. Then comes, like a Marco Polo pageant, the account of his ceremonial journey to Lhasa, the Forbidden City. From the moment he entered Lhasa, the five-year-old boy was the lord and monarch of the Tibetan people and their country. He took up residence in the Potala, the most sacred building in Tibet and one of the most astonishing buildings on earth. Until the age of eighteen, his life was one of rigorous study and training in art, history, government, philosophy, and religion. Attended by a select bodyguard of Khamba tribesmen, he was waited on hand and foot. Each morning his tutors carried his books, pencils, pens, and writing material to the classroom. He ate from dishes of gold and drank from goblets of silver and walked on carpets of brocade.

TREGASKIS, RICHARD. *X-15 Diary*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton & Co., 300 Park Avenue, South. 1961. 317 pp. \$4.95. On August 4, 1960, the X-15 hypersonic manned rocket ship flashed high over Edwards Air Force Base, California, to a new all-time speed record of 2,196 miles an hour. A few days later, the sleek, stub-winged ship soared out of the earth's atmosphere into space to reach the world's record altitude of 136,500 feet. Now, for the first time, Richard Tregaskis, author of *Guadalcanal Diary* and *Invasion Diary*, tells the full, engrossing story that lies behind these flights. This story marks one of America's greatest chapters in the exploration of space.

Vacations Abroad. New York 22: UNESCO Publications Center, 801 Third Avenue. 1961. 189 pp. \$1.25. The thirteenth edition of *Vacations Abroad* contains information on a wide variety of educational and cultural vacation activities taking place in 1961 in over seventy-five countries. Young people are enabled to combine their holidays abroad with study and educational travel. There are 859 institutions and organizations, with their headquarters in 65 countries, that have contributed information on their activities. Included are vacation courses, summer schools and seminars, study tours, student and youth hostels, summer camps and centres, international voluntary work camps and other international educational exchange schemes providing an opportunity for study and travel abroad. In addition to these activities, *Vacations Abroad* contains information on the financial assistance available for vacation study or training, and also includes references to other publications listing vacation activities in certain countries or regions.

Vanguard. Chicago 11: Scott, Foresman and Company, 433 E. Erie Street. 1961. 608 pp. \$4.36. This ninth-grade anthology and handbook of skills contains selections with special appeal for students who ordinarily avoid read-

ing. From the first selection in Countdown right through all the anthology units, one finds *Vanguard* providing fresh, exciting selections that are mature in subject matter and direct in style. A glance at the unit titles gives one a notion of the areas of reading opened up for students to explore. As one reads some of the selections, he notices the vigorous writing that should help pull less able readers into the book, help them discover how enjoyable reading can be. Skill-building exercises help prepare less able readers for reading the selections successfully. Follow-up study aids are provided to strengthen good reading habits.

Vocational Education in the Next Decade. Washington 25, D. C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare; Office of Education, Room 4282. 1961. 205 pp. Free. Proposals for discussion of the need for vocational education for the unemployed, school drop-outs, migrant workers, the handicapped, and other youth and adults. Also calls for a thoroughgoing updating of the laws in this field. An 11-page report of this book is available in summary form.

WEAVER, STELLA. *A Poppy in the Corn*. New York 14: Pantheon Books, Inc., 333 Sixth Avenue. 1961. 319 pp. \$3.50. Going to live in a lovely home on England's Cornish coast should have seemed like a dream to Teresa Giselli, a thirteen-year-old war orphan from Europe. Instead, from her first day with the Clare family, Teresa had serious misgivings.

WIBBERLEY, LEONARD. *Sea Captain from Salem*. New York 3: Farrar, Straus and Cudahy, 19 Union Square West. 1961. 186 pp. \$2.95. In this book the author gives a vivid picture of this neglected but critical chapter in the War of Independence. Here is the aging Franklin, matching his keen wits with Vercennes, the French foreign minister. Here is the dissolute First Lord of the British Admiralty, neglecting his task as Commander of the British Navy to squander his fortune on the gaming tables. Here is the Earl of Chatham—the Great Commoner—who before the war spoke on behalf of the colonists.

WILLARD, BARBARA. *Eight for a Secret*. New York 22: Franklin Watts, Inc., 575 Lexington Avenue. 1961. 219 pp. \$2.95. When Ellie Allsopp had to leave busy London for the little English village called Barleybrook, the moving upset her. The town where she had to find friends was split by resentments between the people of old Barleybrook and the factory workers (like Ellie's married brother) who came to make up New Barley.

WILLIAMS, ERIC. *The Tunnel*. New York 16: Abelard-Schuman, Ltd., 404 Fourth Avenue. 1961. 192 pp. \$3.50. The author describes camp life, drawing dramatic and memorable character studies of Howard's prison mates, and recreating the atmosphere of optimism and frustration as new escape routes are planned. Young readers; who may be shocked by the reality of prison life—with its hunger, lack of privacy, isolation from the normal existence—will follow with interest the gradual adjustments of persons with varying temperaments to the inactivity and monotony of camp life.

The films in this series are: *Chemistry of Water* (14 minutes), *Oxidation-Reduction* (16 minutes), *Combustion* (14½ minutes), and *Chlorine—A Representative Halogen* (16 minutes). They are available for preview and possible purchase from Sutherland Educational Films, Inc., 201 North Occidental Blvd., Los Angeles 26, California. Each of these four films is 16mm, sound, and color and is prepared for use with students in grades 9 to 12 and college level. The *Combustion* film is also usable in grade 8. The sale price is \$150.00 each.

THE MIGRANT SCHOOL CHILD

Of all the under-privileged groups in America, quite possibly the most down trodden are the migrant agricultural workers who "follow the crops" as the season advances from south to north. They are the mobile pool which provides the peak seasonal labor needed. They work for a few months—or a few weeks—along the shores of Lake Okeechobee in Southern Florida, for instance and then, as the sun turns seasonally north, they follow it, stopping here and there for brief periods of sporadic work in the fields.

Tragically, many of them, if not most of them, are family groups, with children of school age. The children have no particular incentive to seek an education and most of the communities where they pause briefly in their wanderings have no particular feeling of responsibility for their education. These are people at the bottom of the heap and for them the American dream is no more than a dream.

But the schools cannot entirely turn their backs on these children. Some effort is made to provide some sort of education for them, miserably inadequate as it must be. Since 1951 there has been a National Council on Agricultural Life and Labor composed of representatives of six organizations whose work is related to the education and welfare of children which has concerned itself with the problem presented by the children of these migrant farm workers. As an outgrowth of the work of this council, funds were found some years ago to establish an experimental pilot project to see what could be done to improve the educational opportunities of these children.

A report on how this project functioned, and the recommendations it developed for future guidance, is now available in a book published by the Department of Rural Education of the National Education Association, (1201 16th Street, N.W., 147 pages, \$3.50) titled, *Knowing and Teaching the Migrant Child*.

BAKERSFIELD HIGH SCHOOL OBSERVES FOUNDER'S DAY

Sixty-eight years! And a celebration is called for . . . a celebration of the founding of Bakersfield High School! This high school in Bakersfield, California, was founded on January 12, 1893, and a year later had its first graduating class consisting of three women. Since its founding, the school has gained state and national renown through its excellent scholastic, cultural, and athletic programs. Now having an enrollment of nearly 5,000 students, larger than any other high school in the state, it has over 170 members on its faculty, one of the largest school bus systems in the country, and consists of three campuses! It also has a Student Store which handles over \$65,000 per year, a roster of over sixty clubs, and a varsity football team which has twenty-six valley championships to its credit.

For these reasons and many more, the students of Bakersfield High School have taken time each year for the past five years on the 12th of January to commemorate the founding of their fine Alma Mater with various programs. During these five Founder's Day programs, the students were made aware of the school's proud past.

The first Founder's Day program was held in 1957; among the invited guests was Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, Earl Warren, certainly the most famous of Bakersfield High's graduates. A prominent part of the ceremony was the renaming and dedicating of one of the buildings on campus "Warren Hall" after the Chief Justice.

In 1958, a similar program was held and other guests were honored. Among them was the late State Assemblywoman, Dorothy Donahoe, a former Bakersfield High School graduate. A portrait of Chief Justice Warren was presented to the school at this time. In 1959, the same type of program was again held and past graduates shared old memories with the students and faculty.

The first birthday party was held in 1960. In keeping with the theme of the program, members of the Student Government Class wore old-time costumes. This year another birthday party, similar to that of 1960, was held for the student body and was a project of Bakersfield High School's active Student Government Class. Former graduates were guest speakers. There were door prizes and refreshments enjoyed by all. The highlight of the party was the presentation to the student body of a portrait of the first school building.

In addition to the traditional Founder's Day programs, each year the *Blue and White*, school newspaper, publishes a special Founder's Day edition. In this edition are included articles of outstanding sports achievements, notable graduates of the school, changes of past and present, pictures of the buildings of the past, newspaper and yearbook history, and any other articles of changes which are of interest to the student body. This year the articles were written by members of the Student Government Class.

Bakersfield High School has graduated many famous persons. Probably the most notable, as mentioned before, is Earl Warren, Chief Justice of the United States Supreme Court, who was also one time governor of California and candidate for the office of Vice President of the United States in 1948. Among other notable graduates are Richard Blick, American gold medal winner for swimming in the 1960 Olympics at Rome; Frank Gifford, one of the most successful professional football players in history; Dennis Ralston, one of the nation's top ten men tennis players and winner of this year's men's doubles title in Davis Cup competition at Australia; and Sally Moore, one of the nation's top ten women tennis players and a finalist in the Wimbledon Tennis Championships. The high school has also graduated four All-Americans, a professional ballerina, three movie stars, a Walt Disney cartoonist, a famous poet, a noted playwright, and several scientists, just to name a few.

The students of Bakersfield High School are proud of their school, its history, its development, and its achievement since its humble beginning in 1893. Therefore, each year, on January 12, they take time to commemorate its founding.

HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS LEARN RUSSIAN

The MLA survey reveals that while Spanish and French are still the preferred languages studied in public high schools, with German and Italian running third and forth, Russian bids fair to catch up with the others in a very

short time. In 1958-59, enrollments in Russian language classes amounted to just 0.05 per cent of the high-school population, but the figure has quadrupled since then. In 1957, only 5 states offered Russian in 9 high schools—25 states now offer classes in Russian at the high-school level.

Essentials of Russian. (Dover Publications, 180 Varick Street, New York 14, New York, \$4.95) is a twelve-inch long-playing record which has been prepared by Professor Andre Von Gronicka of Columbia University and Helen Bates-Yakobson, Chairman of the Department of Slavic Languages at George Washington University. The record stresses all areas of the spoken language; pronunciation, conversation, and comprehension. It can be used by the student as an aid to standard Moscow pronunciation or by the traveler with limited learning time. The passages on the record were selected from Professors Von Gronicka and Bates-Yakobson's text, *Essentials of Russian* (Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1958). They cover an extremely wide range of material from individual words and easy conversation to advanced selections from Tolstoy, Lermontov, Pushkin, and other Russian authors. A 54-page manual duplicates the text on the record and contains the complete English translation on the facing pages.

MINIMUM STANDARDS FOR READING SPECIALISTS

The International Reading Association, 5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago 37, Illinois, has recently released a brochure entitled *Minimum Standards for Professional Training of Reading Specialists*. This flyer is a guide for teachers and administrators, state and provincial departments of education, teacher-training institutions, and certifying agencies. The publication was prepared by the Committee of Professional Standards of the International Reading Association. It states the purpose of the brochure, discusses the need for establishing standards, lists minimum standards for professional training of reading specialists, and also includes a Code of Ethics. Copies of this brochure may be had by writing to Dr. Charles T. Letson, Director, Teaching Consultant Services, 315 Whitney Avenue, New Haven, Connecticut.

TEACHING AIDS

The World Book Encyclopedia, (Field Enterprises Educational Corporation, Marshall Field, Jr., Chairman of the Board, Merchandise Mart Plaza, Chicago 54, Illinois) has been conducting extensive research in the field of education as a part of its continuous revision program and as a basis for determining how best to serve its readers. A descriptive list (free) of teaching materials has been developed for use with *The World Book* as a part of the publisher's service to teachers, librarians, and parents. Also available at 50 cents each are *High-School Science* and *Junior High-School Science*. These materials include factual discussions, study questions, and lists of useful resources which render them valuable assets as lesson-planning aids for teachers and/or as resource booklets for students.

HIGH-SCHOOL JOURNALISTS

A \$5,000 grant for extension work in journalism in Ohio high schools has been awarded the School of Journalism of The Ohio State University, Columbus 10, Ohio, by The Newspaper Fund, Inc., of New York. The Newspaper Fund was organized and is fully supported by the *Wall Street Journal*. Its goal is to stimulate interest among talented young people for careers in journalism.

A pilot program in reporting and editing will be concentrated in Central Ohio at the outset. Help for advisers and staffs of high-school publications will later be expanded on a state-wide basis. Faculty members from the School of Journalism will work with high-school groups and materials for classroom use will be developed. Now available to high-school teachers is Volume I of *Journalism Teaching Aids*, a syllabus with teaching suggestions.

LIBRARY SCHOLARSHIPS

The School Library Association of California maintains a Memorial Scholarship Loan Fund. This loan fund provides \$200 loans for prospective school librarians attending any A.L.A. accredited library school. Applicants must have spent one year in California and plan to work in California schools. For those who can qualify and are interested in the program write to Dorothy Smith, 4612 Virginia Avenue, Long Beach 5, California.

THE ADVANCED PLACEMENT PROGRAM

In 1959 the Advanced Placement Program had 5,862 candidates who took 8,265 examinations; they came from 546 schools and entered 391 colleges. In 1961 there were 10,531 candidates, 14,158 examinations, 890 schools, and 567 colleges. Thus, the number of candidates increased 80%, examinations 72%, schools 63%, and colleges 45%. The corresponding increases from 1958 to 1959 had been 58%, 21%, 52%, and 40%. The Advanced Placement Committee considers this a healthy rate of growth.

The candidates who took examinations in 1960 received a larger percentage of low grades than did those who took the examinations in 1959. For example, the number of 1's awarded increased between 1959 and 1960 from 24% to 35% in mathematics, from 10% to 20% in physics, from 9% to 19% in biology, and from 4% to 16% in chemistry. A study is being made to promote understanding of the Advanced Placement Program and improve communication between school and college teachers and administrators. Eight conferences will be held in June at the following universities: University of Oregon, Eugene, Oregon; Colorado State University, Fort Collins, Colorado; Duke University, Durham, North Carolina; Occidental College, Los Angeles, California; University of Washington, Seattle, Washington; Carnegie Institute of Tech., Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania; University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kansas; and Kent State University, Kent, Ohio.

CONFERENCE ON NATIONAL GOALS

Oak Park and River Forest High School, Oak Park, Illinois, of which Kenneth W. Lund is superintendent, recently sponsored a one-day conference on *Goals for Americans*, a publication of President Eisenhower's Commission on National Goals. Among the speakers were General Alfred M. Gruenther; and Otto Kerner, Governor of Illinois. Involved in the conference were honor roll students of the high school, their parents, and civic, religious, and business leaders.

The program for the day included addresses and 15 discussion groups based on the 15 goals as outlined in the Commission's report to President Eisenhower—a copy of which was given to each of the participating honor students; and mimeographed instructions were sent to the chairmen, the honor student speakers, the adult speakers, and the recorders. Superintendent Lund and his co-workers are to be congratulated for the excellent manner in which the conference was organized.

MUSIC AND PUBLIC EDUCATION

"Possibly I should give a word of caution at this point. Realizing full well the appeal of music as a public relations agency, may I urge that you not use this lesser strength in a big way. I refer here to persuasion by a dramatic public performance sometimes found at athletic events. Performing groups which have color and considerable public appeal, but which consume much time and energy and produce relatively little high-class music, should have only modest support from music educators. In other words, don't overplay the showmanship which may be achieved by prostituting music."—From the February-March, 1961 issue of *Music Educators Journal* in an article entitled, "Music and Public Education" by Finis E. Engleman, Executive Secretary of the American Association of School Administrators, NEA.

A 50TH ANNIVERSARY

The University City, Missouri, School District celebrated its fiftieth anniversary this year with a special edition of its Board of Education publication, *University City Schools*. This issue, (4 pages, 17½ x 11¼, printed) Volume XVII, number 7, dated February 21, 1961, gives a brief history of the entire school system. Almost all the articles are the work of students. At the elementary-school level, the work was usually done by classroom units as indicated by the introduction to each article. Several of the elementary schools prepared very long and detailed histories. Some of them plan to publish their full histories in mimeographed form. At other elementary schools, the histories were handled as composition assignments for a few pupils. At some schools, pupils were engaged in other major projects during the semester and the histories were necessarily shorter.

At the Brittany Junior High School, a very detailed history was prepared by a group of students. The Hanley Junior High School history was written by a teacher, Miss Ella Anne Gerlach, as the project did not fit into the scheduled work of any of the classes at that school.

At the Senior High School, 20 students chose various aspects of the school system's history for their term papers. A number of the high-school term papers dealt with specific departments of the school system. Several of the individual school histories include rosters and personality sketches of staff members. Several of the school histories also include histories of parent-teacher associations.

Because of space limitations all of the articles used for this issue were reduced in length. A complete set of the individual histories and term papers will be kept permanently on file at the main offices of the Board of Education for reference in future years as source material important in the history of the community.

LESSON PLANS FOR ENGLISH LANGUAGE CLASSES

Perry Birnbaum of the English Department of Jamaica High School, 168th Street and Gothic Drive, Jamaica 32, New York, has prepared a 28-page aid for high-school English classes entitled "Uniform Lesson Plans." This covers a two-week period for the beginning of the term and is organized on a daily basis. Dr. Joseph Mersand, Chairman of the English Dept. states: "While there may be some restraint of freedom in following a set of Uniform Lessons, an abundance of materials has been provided to allow for individual approaches in presentation. Also, what may seem repetitious to the teacher after five classes

is new material to the pupil who has but one English class each day." Copies may be secured for 50 cents each from Dr. Mersand at the above high-school address.

SEMINAR FOR SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS 1962

The Department of State, the Board of Foreign Scholarships, and the Office of Education announce an opportunity under the Fulbright Act for 20 American school administrators to participate in a special educational seminar to be held in Europe in 1962 from February 11 through April 14. The seminar will include a study of the school systems of Italy (Italy February 11-March 9) and The Netherlands (The Netherlands March 18-April 14) at different levels and lectures on social and economic conditions. Opportunities will be available to visit schools and to have conferences with school administrators in the countries concerned.

Qualifications. Candidates should be school administrators at the elementary or secondary level who devote full time to administrative responsibilities. Preference will be given to candidates who have a master's degree in the field of educational administration or supervision, have completed five years of experience as full-time administrators or supervisors, and are under sixty years of age. Supervisors in individual subject fields are not eligible for this particular project. Candidates selected for grants must agree not to take dependents or to have them arrive before the termination of the seminar.

Selection. Participants in this Seminar will be selected by the Board of Foreign Scholarships. Candidates will be notified in September of the action taken by the Board on their applications.

Terms of Award. The grant will include the cost of round-trip transportation from grantee's residence in the United States to the countries concerned, travel within Europe in connection with the program, and the cost of tuition for the Seminar. Grantees will pay for their own board and room which has been estimated at \$12 to \$15 per day.

Application Procedure. School administrators who are interested in applying should write to the Office of Education for applications. Applications will be accepted between March 1 and May 30. All requests for information or applications should be addressed to: Educational Exchange and Training Branch, Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington 25, D. C.

GUIDANCE SERVICE

The Bellman Publishing Company, Cambridge 38, Massachusetts, serves as a national clearing house of student aid and research. Through its *Scholarships, Fellowships, and Loans News Service* publication, it attempts to keep its subscribers posted on the latest trends in the increasingly important field of financial assistance to students and the colleges and universities.

The company offers two types of subscriptions. For \$20 a year, the subscriber will receive all issues of *News Service*, an annual index, and a binder (upon request). The *News Service* is a 8-page publication, size 8½ x 11, and is published at least four times during the year. For \$35 a year, the subscriber receives all issues of *News Service*, an annual index, a binder (upon request), a choice of any 15 Bellman publications free (except the scholarship volumes) upon request, 2 Scholarship Search Problems (upon request), and technical report upon request (Techniques in setting up a successful scholarship com-

mittee, including policy development, designing an effective program, referral to sources for suggested application forms, reference forms, test developments, etc.)

IQ FALLS SHORT

The traditional IQ tests (which measure only a few dimensions of intelligence) readily spot the "academically talented" pupil, but often bypass the "creative" one. In addition, the factors which enable a pupil to do well on an IQ test may not be very useful to him in later life. These points are made by Psychology Professor Calvin W. Taylor of the University of Utah in a new book published by the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

He cites one study in which practicing scientists were asked to arrange, in the order of importance, some 28 "dimensions of the mind" which they felt led to success on the job in the physical sciences. Among the 28 were five or six qualities usually measured by the traditional IQ tests. It turned out that the scientists ranked only one of these IQ factors high on their list of desirable attributes. Dr. Taylor maintains that there are several kinds of "giftedness" aside from academic talent. He says the "creative" type of youngster is different from the IQ type, and that there are other youngsters whose giftedness may lie in the direction of planning, evaluating, decision-making, or in communicating of ideas.—*Air Letter*, NEA

CONANT STUDIES TEACHER EDUCATION

Dr. James B. Conant will undertake, beginning September 1, 1961, a two-year study of the education of teachers, it was announced by the Carnegie Corporation of New York City. Concerned with the education of teachers from kindergarten through grade 12, the study will take Dr. Conant in the next academic year to the campuses of numerous colleges and universities in various parts of the nation. His report, which is not expected before the expiration of the two-year period, will be addressed in the first instance to the lay boards and faculties of teacher training institutions and will be available to the public.

Dr. Conant's decision was based largely upon the fact that some of the leaders in the field of teacher education feel such a study by him would be of great importance at the present time. Among the topics to be included will be the preparation of public school teachers and the criteria of employment established by local, regional, and state authorities.

On the staff for the first year will be John I. Goodlad, Professor in the School of Education, University of California at Los Angeles, who will serve on a part-time basis; Jeremiah S. Finch, Professor of English and Dean of the College in Princeton University; William H. Cartwright, Professor and Chairman of the Department of Education, Duke University; Robert F. Carbone, at present an instructor in the School of Education at the University of Chicago; and E. Alden Dunham, a member of Dr. Conant's staff for the past three years. The Educational Testing Service of Princeton, New Jersey, will administer the \$300,000 grant from the Carnegie Corporation.

AID FOR DRIVER EDUCATION

General Motors will double the allowance given its dealers who lend cars to high schools for driver training programs, John F. Gordon, GM President, reports. The allowance, to be granted retroactive to the start of the 1960-61

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Professional inquiries are invited. East Coast residents, address Charles J. Fowler, Director of Admissions, Devereux Schools, Devon, Pennsylvania. West Coast residents, address Keith A. Seaton, Registrar, Devereux Schools, Box 1079, Santa Barbara, California. Southwestern residents, address John M. Barclay, Director of Development, Devereux Schools, Box 336, Victoria, Texas.

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school year, will be \$250. It has been \$125 since General Motors pioneered the plan in 1955. The action was taken to encourage maximum dealer participation in the program and in recognition of the increased costs incurred by dealers lending cars for this purpose. Under terms of the GM plan, a dealer receives the allowance from the corporation for each new Buick, Oldsmobile, Pontiac, or Chevrolet lent to schools for driver training. A further requirement is that cars must be equipped with two approved type front seat belts, dealer-installed at factory expense.

More than 1,200,000 high-school students in the United States receive some form of driver education annually with approximately 700,000 of them benefiting from a full course including behind-the-wheel instruction. GM's contribution to the program during the 1959-60 school year totaled nearly one-half million dollars on almost 4,000 cars. Since 1955, allowances have totaled \$2,697,500 on 21,580 cars.

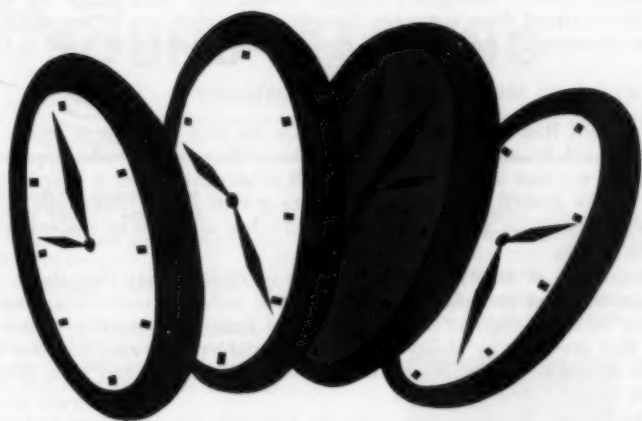
IT'S CALLED JESSI

Present tenth and eleventh grade high-school students across the country have an opportunity to attend one of the more than a dozen Junior Engineers' and Scientists' Summer Institutes (called JESSI) sessions in June following the close of school. A two-week JESSI program is designed to help interested high-school juniors and seniors gain insight into the pure and basic applied sciences and also gain some knowledge of the study programs and career opportunities in the science and engineering fields. With this information, they will be able to make better decisions about their college programs and life careers.

Started in 1956 at Oregon State College, JESSI institutes are now scheduled in more than a dozen college and universities campuses. Some of the institutions with dates of institutes are: Alfred University, Alfred, New York, June 25-July 8; Clarkson College of Technology, Potsdam, New York, July 2-15; Clemson College, Clemson, South Carolina, June 11-24; Colorado State University, Fort Collins, June 18-July 1; University of Delaware, Newark, June 18-July 1; DePauw University, Greencastle, Indiana, June 25-July 8; Mississippi State University, State College, June 4-17; New Mexico State University, University Park, June 11-24; Oregon State College, Corvallis, June 11-24; University of Redlands, Redlands, California, June 26-July 7 and July 10-21; Washington State University, Pullman, June 11-24; and Williamette University, Salem, Oregon. Three of these are co-educational while the others are either for boys or for girls only.

During these JESSI sessions, in class groups of about twenty-five members, enrollees are under the tutelage of the science and engineering faculties of the host colleges and universities. For five or six hours each of the thirteen days by lecture, demonstration, and other laboratory procedures, the JESSI faculty endeavors to clarify in the minds of the students: (a) what each area of learning is about; (b) the subdivisions encompassed by each area; (c) the interrelationship between the several areas of learning; (d) the study program which must be undertaken to earn degrees in each field of study; and (e) the study demands confronting those who major in the sciences and engineering. Enrollees are urged to seek private council with the specialists on the staff.

The evenings are devoted primarily, to career discussions about major areas of occupations by people who are currently working in the fields of medicine,



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pharmacy, power, aerospace, mining, metals, etc. Any junior or senior is eligible to attend these institutes. Specific information can be secured by writing to Scientists of Tomorrow, 308 New Fliedner Building, Portland 5, Oregon.

ABILITY GROUPING

The NEA Research Division reported on the *pros* and *cons* of ability grouping put forth by its attackers and defenders. Those people who oppose ability grouping say that ability is often difficult to recognize, that it may be specific rather than general, that segregation into groups is not democratic, and that children benefit by the stimulus provided when all types of students are in a single group.

Proponents of ability grouping, on the other hand, say that ability *can* be recognized, that extraclass activities provide sufficient contacts among pupils in the various groups so that the charge of being undemocratic is not sound, and that grouping by ability ensures that bright pupils may advance rapidly, while slower ones may benefit from the additional drill and time devoted to single areas of the curriculum.

The idea of ability grouping, says the Research Division, seems to be gaining ground. More than two thirds of the urban school districts make at least a limited provision for ability grouping in the elementary grades, and about half of all the districts indicate the trend is toward expanding such grouping. In the secondary grades, ability grouping is even more widely used. Nine out of 10 districts report its existence, and almost two thirds of the districts note a trend toward expansion of the system.—*Air Letter*, NEA

REPORT CARD PLUS

Parents with a child enrolled in a city school system are likely to get five or six reports each year on his progress in school. According to a recent NEA Research Division survey, more than half of the urban school systems issue reports at least six times per year. But the report doesn't always come in the form of a report card. The parent-teacher conference, says NEA, is an increasingly important method being used. For elementary schools, more than three fourths of the districts surveyed used conferences *together with report cards* to inform parents of pupil progress. Only slightly more than one fifth rely on the report card alone. At the junior high-school level, the combination method of reporting is used in half the districts, and for senior high school, in two fifths of the districts. Where school districts indicated they were thinking of changing their reporting methods, the change was almost always toward the combination of report cards and parent conferences.—*Air Letter*, NEA

SCHOOLS TO CONDUCT SUMMER SESSIONS

The Philadelphia Board of Public Education will conduct a five-week summer school session for grades one to eight. The program is primarily for the boys and girls who are being advanced a half year because of the annual reorganization plan going into effect in September. A total of 40 elementary schools and eight junior high schools have been selected by district superintendents so as to give city-wide coverage. Classes will be held each week day from 8:45 A.M. to 12 NOON, from Monday, June 26 to Friday, July 28.

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BARTRAM HIGH-SCHOOL STUDENTS STUDY MICRO-ORGANISMS

An after school hours science project in which students collect airborne micro-organisms and cultivate, examine, test, and classify them is being conducted at the John Bartram High School. The research study is another project financed by the Heart Association of Southeastern Pennsylvania. It is being directed by science teacher David L. Cline.

So far, the nine boys and girls engaged in the study and Dr. Cline have trapped, cultivated, and classified all manner of molds, bacteria, and yeasts. Some of their specimens reportedly look like growth on an over-ripe peach and some like a psychiatrist's ink-blot test. They also have as yet an unidentified micro-organism. Pending establishment of its identity, "the thing" has been labeled "mold of unknown species." The group meets for an hour after school every Tuesday and Wednesday. At the end of the year, the various logs and written reports will be consolidated into one formal report. Scientific discipline is strict, Dr. Cline reported, and the group takes pride in that fact.—*School News and View*, Philadelphia, Penna.

INSTRUCTION BY TV

Of all the exciting new aids in teaching, probably the one that appeals most to the imagination is classroom TV. Its potential and its limitations as a teaching tool have not really been measured yet, but educators are greatly interested in it . . . and, according to the NEA Research Division, quite a number are already using it. A recent survey showed that more than a fourth—28.4 per cent of the urban school districts in this country—have some provision for the programmed use of television for instruction.

As might be expected, the largest districts provide TV instruction more frequently than do the smallest ones; in fact, only 20 per cent of the districts with a population of 500,000 or more reported no provision at all for instruction by TV. Furthermore, more than half of those districts already making some provision for television in the classroom reported a trend toward expanding it; almost no systems were planning to curtail this type of instruction.—*Air Letter*, NEA

VOCATIONAL GUIDES

The American Liberty Press, 161 W. Wisconsin Avenue, Milwaukee 3, Wisconsin, has just released its first book of the Sextant Series. This first in the series, entitled *Manufacturing* and composed of 124 pages, is one of 24 separate vocational guidance books, each devoted to a single and complete area of finance, business, education, and government. Each book contains a set of 50 personal profile forms for individual pupil use which accompanies the first issue; complete job descriptions of the entire range of skills found in the industry including education and experience requirements; a comprehensive profile of each job; and organizational charts for the industry showing students where they can start and where they can go. This collection of 24 separate vocational guidance books is available by special subscription. One book is released each month for two years. The first book was issued in November 1960. The subscription price is \$22.50 (12 books) annually for soft covers and \$34.50 annually for hard covers. The entire series of 24 books is available for \$45 (soft covers) or \$69 (hard covers.)



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THE TRANSPARENT FIGURE OF THE HUMAN BODY

The biological division of the Arin Testaguzza Company of Oxford, Michigan, has announced the completion of production facilities for the making of a life-sized transparent figure of the human body which stands 6 feet high and is mounted on an 8-inch step up base. This work was completed after months of hard work and study, with constant professional consultation. It features the entire skeletal structure, the major peripheral blood-vascular system, as well as the major nerve supply. This vivid demonstration will be of benefit to students and instructors alike.

The bones of the extremities are so placed that the joints may be properly studied and understood. The skull, the spinal column, and the pelvis are most realistic in their reproduction. The major nerve supply to the extremities can be readily seen.

The arteries include the major arterial supply to the extremities of the body and the carotids in the neck as well as the verebrals are shown as they pass through the transverse processes of the cervical spine. The corresponding veins are also demonstrated. The organs of the body are all independently lighted. The electrical controls are housed in a separate and independent unit and are located and marked for ease of operation by the lecturer or instructor. A series of taped lectures accompany each figure.

MERIT RATING TEACHER PAY HELD MISUSED

Merit rating to reward superior teachers is a good idea, but it shouldn't be used as an escape from raising over-all teacher salaries, a group of educators believes. Forrest Rozzell, executive secretary of the Arkansas Education Association, says he does not know of one school district in America where conditions exist that merit rating actually realizes the "alleged purpose; to identify superior teachers and to pay them accordingly. The grand strategy of the movement for merit rating," Rozzell contends, "is to develop a technique by which certain groups seek to avoid the inevitability of increasing tax support for education—a technique of dividing inadequate funds among teachers."

Rozzell expressed his views in one of a series of round-table discussions for school administrators conducted by the *Nation's Schools*, a professional journal. The administrators, besides contending a higher salary level for all teachers must come before merit rating, expressed concern over the difficulty of rating superior teachers, who should do the rating, and whether parents might not insist that their child be taught by a "superior teacher."

NORTH CAROLINA REPORT ON MERIT RATING

The Commission for the Study of Teacher Merit Pay has submitted its report to the Governor. In part, it concludes that "as the science of teacher evaluation has not developed a completely acceptable instrument upon which to adopt a general system of merit rating . . . systematic experimentation in merit rating should be instituted. . . . This experimental program would award merit salary allowances above maxima which are reached through factors of training and experience."

Leading to the conclusion that experimentation in teacher merit rating should be initiated with state support is a reference to teacher acceptance and endorsement in Utah and California. The report states that "in three Utah districts, where 80 per cent of the teachers voted recently to experiment with merit

AND NO BELLS RING

A dramatic two-part report of the ideas developed by the NASSP's Commission on Staff Utilization. Hugh Downs is the Reporter. Actual teachers, students, and administrators make up the cast.

The two half-hour films show the interrelationship among Large-Group Instruction, Small-Group Discussion, Independent Study, and the Teacher Team. These basic ideas are seen in action and are candidly evaluated by students, teachers, and administrators who have experienced them in several Commission-sponsored local experiments.

Part One analyzes the shortcomings of our conventional utilization of teachers. It then details the ways in which the new ideas make better use of their professional abilities and talents as well as time.

Part Two focuses on students, first analyzing their role in the conventional school, then exploring the ways in which all students can be given greater responsibility for their own education within the new patterns of the Commission Plan. It also reports ways in which schools have adapted to the space and schedule changes which utilization of the ideas makes necessary.

The two parts of *And No Bells Ring* are designed to be played together as a full 57-minute program or separately, 28½ minutes each. Both 16mm sound films and television tape recordings are available and cleared for all non-commercial uses, for group showings, and television.

These films were first shown at the Portland NASSP convention, but they were not generally available until last fall. Many principals have found them valuable in stimulating discussion among lay and professional groups in their communities. They were not designed to give final answers, but rather to raise questions. The NASSP presents them as another tool which principals can use to provide leadership in improving instruction.

To order the films write to: National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C. Enclose \$3.00 rental charge for handling one or both films, or we can bill you. Give preferred program dates (please make 3 choices) and the number needed of the free supplementary guides, "New Directions to Quality Education."

rating, the argument that those teachers do not want it is dispelled." This indicates, as we have assumed it might, that teacher approval of experimentation is subsequently interpreted as an endorsement and request for salaries tied to merit ratings. We understand that teachers in one experimental district in Utah were given no voice in the decision to have merit rating, only the option of electing or not electing to be in the group rated for so-called merit raises. When experimental districts receive additional state funds for such research and study, it is entirely possible that motivations and pressures other than a desire for merit rating may have influenced teacher endorsements of experimentation.

We agree that it is "possible to up-grade the level of teaching ability and performance through a constant and fair system of personnel evaluation. . . ." It is doubtful that "merit rating makes the public more willing to support higher salaries." Suspensions of the West Hartford (Conn.) and Scarsdale (N.Y.) merit plans seems to be traceable to a tax-payers' revolt against high salaries for teachers under a merit plan. *Salary Developments*, February 1961

COUNSELOR EDUCATION PROGRAM

Last April, a panel of twenty-five professional school counselors spent two days critically examining the counselor education program of Ohio University, Athens, Ohio. The object was to involve competent guidance practitioners in the improvement of the University's program for preparation of school guidance personnel. Dr. Carroll H. Miller, Specialist, Preparation of Personnel Workers, U.S. Office of Education, opened the conference. The counselor education staff of The Guidance Training Laboratory of Ohio University with assistance from graduate students, described and demonstrated the counselor education program of the College of Education of the University. Panels of counselors and of school administrators reacted to what had been described. The conference concluded with a free exchange of ideas for the improvement of counselor education. A printed report of the findings will be published by the University. Directing the conference were Dr. George E. Hill and Dr. Donald A. Green of the counselor education staff of Ohio University. Panel moderators for the conference included Dr. L. L. Krantz, Associate Professor of School Administration of Ohio University, and Dr. Dean L. Hummel, Acting Director, Division of Guidance and Testing, Ohio State Department of Education. Participants were guests of the University.

STUDY AND TRAINING IN ADULT EDUCATION

During the 1961 summer months, the Bureau of Studies in Adult Education will offer a wide variety of opportunities for study and training in adult education. Included in the offerings will be graduate courses in adult education and adult education institutes. The courses and institutes will be conducted at Indiana University, Bloomington, by faculty of the Bureau of Studies in Adult Education. Graduate courses are planned to provide advanced study opportunities for students of many educational or occupational backgrounds. Among the graduate courses to be offered in the Indiana University 1961 Summer Session are: "The Adult Citizen," "A Survey of Adult Education," and "Processes and Procedures in Adult Education." For further information concerning graduate courses in adult education or adult education institutes write: Director, Bureau of Studies in Adult Education, Box 277, Bloomington, Indiana.

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The story of how this was done is told in a report, *Conventional Gymnasium vs. Geodesic Field House* (16 pages), published by Educational Facilities Laboratories, a nonprofit corporation. The new report, which describes the thinking behind the project as well as cost data and illustrations of the two plans, is available without charge from Educational Facilities Laboratories, 477 Madison Avenue, New York 22, New York.

RUSSIAN SUMMER LANGUAGE INSTITUTE

Dartmouth College again will be the host to the Russian Language Institute for secondary-school teachers from June 26 to August 12. The Summer Language Institutes are part of the National Defense Language Development Program administered by the U.S. Office of Education.

The Dartmouth Institute will be one of 60 in colleges and universities throughout the country. The three Russian Language Institutes will be at Dartmouth, Northwestern, and San Francisco State College. The other 57 will teach French, German, and Spanish. Last summer 40 high-school teachers attended Dartmouth's pilot institute. This summer 50 are expected from the District of Columbia and 22 Eastern and Southern states.

Prof. Basil Milovsoroff of Dartmouth's Russian Civilization Department and director of the Institute said the participants would be selected as before from among the applicants on the basis of: (1) B.A. degree or its equivalent; (2) at least two years or the equivalent of college work in the language; (3) at least one year of teaching Russian in grades 7 through 12 and *bona fide* evidence that the applicant will continue his status as a secondary-school teacher of Russian.

Persons of high potential as teachers of Russian without teaching experience but intending to teach may also qualify for admission. The qualified participants are entitled under the Defense Education Act (VI Part B) to a stipend of \$75 per week plus \$15 per week for each dependent. Private-school teachers under the provisions of the act, receive only free tuition.

A SUMMER SESSION IN EUROPE

After a successful summer at the University of Leiden, New York University is now making plans for a second summer program from July 10 to August 18, 1961. This six-week program provides the student with a significant educational experience without disrupting the regular four-year curriculum. A distinguished group of American and European professors, lecturing in English, offers courses for graduate and undergraduate credit to American and European students. This program is designed as a new contribution to international education, which stimulates a real cultural exchange, with the currents flowing in both directions. Students and teachers who are now at the senior or graduate level are thus able to profit from a summer of formal study in a European

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This statement, by Professor James McClellan of Teachers College, Columbia University, perfectly summarizes the aspirations of TMI-GROLIER.

We do not pretend to know all the answers to programmed learning. However, with the cooperation of leading

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atmosphere. New York University, in cooperation with the Netherlands Universities, offers a diversified curriculum of five courses at the University of Leiden. Student housing is available. For details about the program, write to Seymour L. Flaxman, Director, New York University, Summer Session in Europe, University Heights, New York 53, New York.

COLLEGE SUMMER COURSES FOR THE GIFTED

Secondary-school juniors and seniors of high academic ability will be eligible for enrollment in Lafayette College summer session courses beginning June 19, 1961. This broadened summer program has been established to make possible the enrichment of studies for gifted students of pre-college age. The program is an indication of Lafayette's belief that gifted secondary-school pupils should be encouraged to do college work prior to the completion of their secondary-school curriculum.

Open to both sexes, the expanded summer program will admit students to any course offered in the regular six-week session provided they meet course prerequisites and receive the recommendation of their principal and the approval of Lafayette's summer session director. If a student earns a passing grade, he will receive regular college credit at Lafayette for the course in which he is enrolled. The credits might be transferred at a later date if the policies of other colleges in which students enroll following participation in the Lafayette program make provision for such a transfer.

A SUMMER PROGRAM IN RECREATION

The American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, NEA, will help provide a broad outdoor education and recreation program this summer in a new kind of summer vacation-school for educators at Trail Lake Ranch, Dubois, Wyoming. Sponsored jointly by the University of Wyoming, the Wyoming Education Association, and the NEA, five weekly sessions will begin July 16. Anyone in the field of education, active or retired, is eligible and academic credit may be earned. Wyoming residents should write to the Wyoming Education Association for information and registration forms. Others should write to the NEA Division of Travel Service, 1201 16th Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C.

MATERIALS FOR COURSES IN CHILD DEVELOPMENT

Child Development and Family Life classes will be interested in the materials available from the Mother's Aid of the Chicago Lying In Hospital, University of Chicago, 5841 Maryland Avenue, Chicago 37, Illinois. Many teachers of this phase of home economic education have found this source of information quite helpful for instructional purposes. Those interested may wish to write to the above address for complete information as to the type of materials available from this source.

SUMMER READING INSTITUTES

The 1961 schedule of 21 Summer Reading Institutes has been announced by Science Research Associates, Inc., 259 East Erie Street, Chicago 11, Illinois, a firm serving education, industry, and government through applied behavioral sciences. Each five-day institute, led by reading specialists and consultants, offers concentrated study in the use of basic reading materials and devices. The

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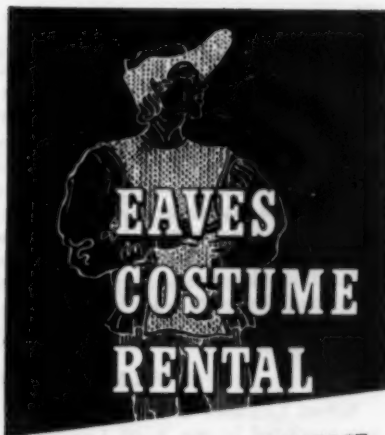
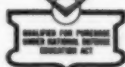
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objective, according to Jack Snyder, associate director of program development, is to enable teachers to initiate their own reading programs or to improve existing programs at the elementary and secondary levels.

Among the topics to be discussed are: improving comprehension, increasing reading rate, developing meaningful vocabularies, building effective study habits, identification of reading difficulties, and survey of reading tests. Materials displayed and discussed include not only those of SRA, but also materials from other educational publishers. Teachers and administrators must register in advance because enrollment at each session is limited to 60. More than 1,000 educators are expected to attend institute sessions in 19 cities from San Francisco to Philadelphia and from Anchorage, Alaska, to Dallas, Texas. For full information, write to the address above.

A FILM ON SCHOOL LIBRARIES

School Libraries in Action, a 16mm educational film in color, with sound, was produced by the North Carolina Department of Public Instruction in co-operation with the School of Library Science and the Bureau of Audio-Visual Education, University of North Carolina. Photographic sequences were taken from the earlier film, *Let's Visit School Libraries*. This film, photographed in North Carolina schools, interprets the school library's services to pupils and teachers, grades 1-12. Five major areas of the school library program are illustrated: planning for library use, guiding pupils' reading, teaching library skills, supplying instructional materials, and guiding reference work. Rental prints are available from the Bureau of Audio-Visual Education, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North Carolina. The rental fee is \$4.50. Orders for the purchase of prints should be addressed to Miss Cora Paul Bomar, State Supervisor, School Library Services, Department of Public Instruction, Raleigh, North Carolina. The price is \$120 per print. Additional information will be supplied on request.

FILMS ON ARCHERY AND TRAMPOLINE

Archery Fundamentals and *Trampoline Fundamentals* are two new physical education films announced by Bailey Films, Inc., 6509 De Longpre Avenue, Hollywood, California. *Archery Fundamentals* is designed to give beginning archers basic knowledge about shooting equipment, proper methods of choosing and using it, and safety measures. Demonstrations show step-by-step procedures, using close-ups and slow motion. Running time, 11 minutes; prices, \$120 in color; \$60 in black and white. *Trampoline Fundamentals* shows in detail the different aerial and landing positions, with combinations of these fundamentals, and stresses the importance of safety measures. Slow motion and stop action are used to emphasize points throughout the film. Running time 11 minutes; price in color, \$120; in black and white, \$60. For complete information on these two films, write to Bailey Films, Inc.

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Over 45 other major corporations and foundations have also sponsored *Horizons* in areas where they have main operations. Sixty school systems from Florida to Alaska have purchased the films directly to inform students about the broad world of science today. The next goal is to try to assure that the films are available to every community of 50,000 people or more.

The *Horizons of Science* films, initiated with the assistance of the National Science Foundation and produced by Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, were completed in July 1960, after two years of research and development. Since then the films have received wide acceptance in educational circles. Each 16mm color and sound film is a twenty-minute field trip to a dramatic scientific activity. Other films deal with visual perception, "thinking" machines, mathematics, the "Mohole" project, and medical research. The scientist is featured as narrator, and the presentations are equally appealing to students and adults.

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Because the welfare of every new family depends upon healthy, informed parents, adequate preparation for parenthood becomes a MUST. Young mothers-to-be usually have less education, do not know of available services; may have overwhelming social problems which outweigh their immediate medical needs. High Schools, therefore, have a great opportunity as well as a responsibility to disseminate the additional information concerning hygiene and medical supervision from the positive standpoint refraining, of course, from the use of fear psychology.

To help educators in this respect, *Approach to Parenthood*, an illustrated booklet of approved instructions and practical helps for use before and after a baby's arrival, is available *free of cost* for distribution to high-school seniors through home economics, physical education, biology, psychology, and family living classes from Mothers' Aid of Chicago Lying-in Hospital, publishers of *Our Baby's First Seven Years* Record Book. Leaders in maternity and infant care—an obstetrician, an editor-lecturer, a nursing director in charge of prospective parents classes—have contributed to the preparation of this booklet. Pointers on care of mother-to-be, important records to be kept of baby's birth, check lists of what mother needs for her comfort at the hospital, and what is needed to bring baby home are contained in this handy size booklet. Together with the booklets available to high-school teachers for distribution to their classes, is an *Instructor's Guide To "Approach To Parenthood" Education and Discussion*. All instructors interested in this material may send their request to: Baby Book Office, Mothers' Aid of Chicago Lying-in Hospital, 5841 Maryland Avenue, Chicago 37, Illinois.

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